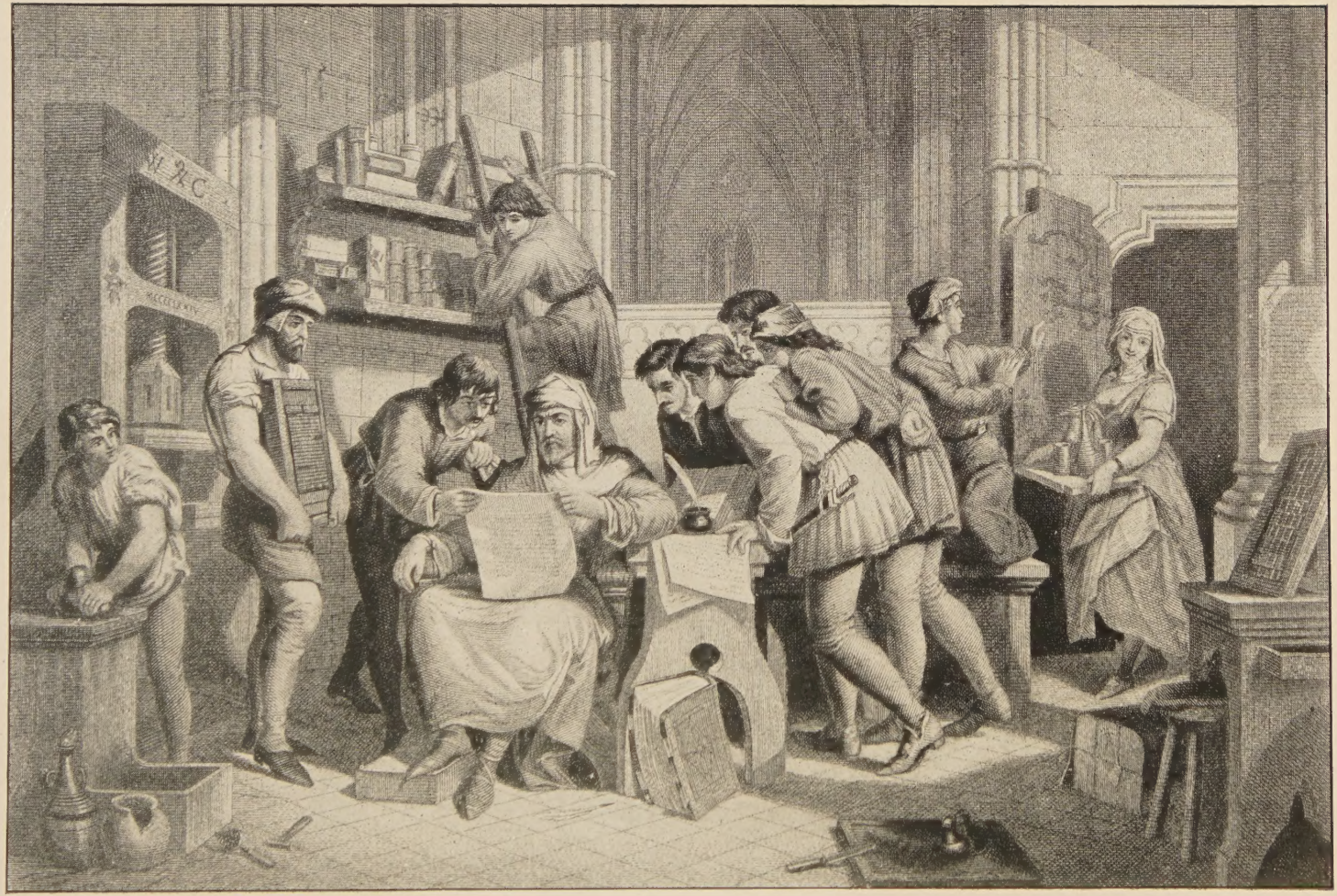

CAXTON READING HIS FIRST PROOF

From the Painting by E. H. Wenhert

THE
STANDARD HISTORY
OF THE WORLD

A NARRATIVE OF POLITICAL EVENTS AND A RECORD OF CIVILIZATION FROM THE EARLIEST HISTORICAL PERIOD TO THE PRESENT, EMBRACING A GENERAL SURVEY OF HUMAN PROGRESS AND ACHIEVEMENT, CIVIL GOVERNMENT, RELIGION, LITERATURE, SCIENCE AND ART.

BY

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Complete in Ten Volumes

VOLUME V—MEDIEVAL HISTORY—CONTINUED

Illustrated with Maps, Portraits and Diagrams

STANDARD HISTORICAL SOCIETY
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1928

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INTRODUCTION

By ARTHUR EDWARD ROMILLY BOAK, A. M., PH. D.
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THE present volume covers in general the period from the early ninth until the early sixteenth century of our era—the epoch which we may call the Later Middle Ages. The chief characteristics of this epoch are: the apogee and decline of feudalism, the influence of the Roman Catholic Church, the continuation of the conflict between Christian Europe and the Mohammedan Orient, the struggles of the Papacy and the Empire leading to the fall of the German power, the growth of strong monarchies in France, England and Spain, the development of the towns, the beginnings of the Reformation and the Renaissance, and the rise of the Turkish and Mongol Empires in Asia.

In the ninth century the Khalifate of Bagdad was the dominant power in the Near East. Then Persia recovered its independence, to become a part of the Afghan Empire of Ghizni until this was overrun by the Seljuk Turks. In the eleventh century this people ruled from the Mediterranean to India. Although their empire was transitory, the hostility of the Seljuks towards Christianity led to the Crusades, which constituted a new phase of the conflict between the Cross and the Crescent (1096-1291 A. D.). The Crusade against the sect of the Albigenses in Southern France, in the course of which the dreaded *Inquisition* was established, was an echo of this conflict.

In Germany, under the Hohenstauffens (1138-1273 A. D.), interest centers in the struggle for supremacy between the Emperors of the Holy Roman or Germano-Roman Empire and the Popes, supported by their respective partizans, the Ghibellines and the Guelfs, a struggle waged on Italian as much as upon German soil. Under the Hapsburgs and Luxemburgs (1273-1519 A. D.) the imperial claims upon Italy were practically abandoned, but the long struggle had so weakened the imperial power in Germany itself that the various German princes had won practical independence, and the Emperor's power was based on his hereditary possessions. Many cities had won their freedom also, chiefly through the *Rhine* and the *Hanseatic* Leagues; and the cantons of Switzerland had formed a free federation.

In France (987-1515 A. D.) the course of events was otherwise. Originally much weaker than some of their feudal vassals, the French kings, through the efforts of such rulers as Louis VI, Philip Augustus, Louis IX, Philip the Fair and Louis XI, steadily increased their power until the whole of France was consolidated in a strongly centralized monarchy. The Hundred Years' War with England helped to develop French nationality and strengthen the people's loyalty

to the crown. This period also saw the rise of many privileged towns and the beginnings of constitutional government in the organization of the Parliament of Paris and the States General.

In contemporary England (1066-1509 A. D.) we have the gradual welding of the English people out of Briton, Saxon and Norman elements, the annexation of Wales and part of Ireland, the opposition of the barons to royal despotism resulting in the granting of Magna Charta and the formation of Parliament with the two houses of Lords and Commons, the loss of the French possessions of the English kings, the destruction of the old nobility in the wars of the Roses, and the establishment of the Tudor autocracy under Henry VII. Meanwhile Scotland (843-1513 A. D.) slowly emerged as a united nation, the result of a gradual fusion of Picts and Scots, Britons, Angles and Normans. After a long period of dependence upon England, the Scots won their independence under the leadership of Robert Bruce, and the royal power was firmly established by the Stuarts (1390-1513 A. D.).

In Italy these centuries saw the growth of the dominions of the Pope, and the rise of the great city-republics, notably Venice, Genoa, Florence, and Milan, famous for their progress in navigation, commerce, industry and banking. Under their tyrants of the fifteenth century, these cities were the cultural centers of Western Europe. In the South, Sicily and Naples after many vicissitudes as an independent kingdom finally passed into the hands of the Spaniards.

In the Spanish peninsula (718-1516 A. D.), we trace the rise of the Kingdom of Spain from the union of the crowns of Aragon, Castile and Leon, and Navarre; the growth of Portugal; the fall of Granada and the end of the Moorish *régime* in Spain (1492 A. D.); and the growth of maritime enterprise leading to the discovery of the Americas and the sea route to India.

In the North East of Europe, the three Kingdoms of Denmark, Norway and Sweden arose about the end of the ninth century. Politically, economically, and culturally, they lagged behind the states to the South. In the fourteenth century the three were united under Danish rule, but Sweden definitely regained its independence early in the sixteenth century.

It was also in the Later Middle Ages that most of the Slavic states of Eastern Europe took their rise. Russia, first united about 1000 A. D. in the Grand Duchy of Great Russia, fell apart and was long subject to Mongol invaders, but towards the close of the fifteenth century regained unity and independence under the Grand Dukes of Moscow. Poland, organized as a state about the same time as Russia, grew steadily in power until by the sixteenth century it formed the eastern bulwark of civilized Europe. In the meantime the Magyar (Tartar) kingdom of Hungary, after a gallant struggle against the Turks, was united to the Austrian House of Hapsburg (1528 A. D.), while Bulgaria, Servia, and Bosnia, other Slavic states, arose upon what was once

territory of the Eastern Roman Empire. Ultimately these three came under Ottoman domination (1389 A. D.). The Eastern Roman Empire, overthrown by the Crusaders and supplanted by a Latin Kingdom from 1204 to 1261 A. D., was re-established and prolonged a hopeless struggle against Turkish encroachments until the fall of Constantinople (1453 A. D.).

Asia, in the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries, witnessed the rapid rise and fall of two vast Tartar empires, that of the Mongol Zinghis Khan and that of Tamerlane, each a destructive force. In their wake arose Asiatic states which have lasted into modern times: the Ming Empire in China, the Great Mogol Empire in India, the modern Persian Empire, and the Empire of the Ottoman Turks, which also embraced the Balkan Peninsula in Europe.

At the opening of the sixteenth century, as a result of the decline of feudalism, the rebirth of learning, the invention of printing and the discovery of the New World, Europe stood at the threshold of a new age; while Asia was destined to retain its mediaeval outlook for many centuries.

A. E. R. Boak

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500 600 700

PERSIA.

From 250 B.C. the Parthians ruled Persia; in 227 A.D. the Sassanidæ overthrew them, and gave Persia its highest fame.
31. **Chosroes I, the Great.**
32. Compels Rome to pay him tribute.
54. Conquers in second war.
91. **Chosroes II** conquers Syria, Egypt, Asia Minor to Constantinople.
27. Sir[illegible] oes kills his father; becomes king.
32. **Hormisdas.**
33. Persia subdued by Arabia.
40. **Omar** destroys Alexandrian Library.
45. **Othman:** subdues Bactria, Cyprus, North Africa.
55. **Ali,** brave and wise, in Egypt.
60. **Hasan.**
60. **Moawiyah** founds dynasty of **OMMIADES.**
79. **Yezid.**
83. **Abdallah.**
5. **Waled I.**
11. Sends **Taric** to i[illegible] Spain: conquers
14. **Soliman.**
17. **Omar II.**

ARABIA.

Scattered, independent tribes; religion, fetishism and idolatry; Koreish, most influential tribe, guarding the Kaaba, shrine of the Sacred Stone, at Mecca. 70. **Mohammed,** the Koreishite, born at Mecca.
12. **Mohammed** preaches the unity of God—Allah.
22. **Hegira,** the flight from Mecca to Medina.
24. Begins Holy War; conquers Mecca.
32. Dies, after uniting all the tribes.
Abu-Beker becomes **Caliph** ("Successor"); takes Damascus.
84. **Merwan.**
87. **Abdal malek.**
21. Gaul i[illegible]
32. Sars[illegible] reer[illegible]
49.

SARACE

EASTERN OR BYZANTINE EMPIRE.

27. **Justinian I,** the Great; famed for his Code of Roman Law.
34. His Generals—**Belisarius** subdues Vandals in Africa, and **Narses** the Ostrogoths in Italy. 73. **Tiberius:** defeats the Persians. **Great pestilence.** 61. **Justin II.** 82. **Mauritius.**
10. **Heraclius:** meets the ravaging Persians and defeats them in five campaigns.
2. **Phocas,** brutal usurper.
41. **Heraclius II, Heracleonas.**
42. **Constans II.**
70. Saracens besiege Constantinople five months: **Callinicus** burns their ships with "Greek fire."
85. **Justinian II.**
95. **Leontius.** 17. **Leo III** fou[illegible] ISAURIC I
Absi[illegible] **marus.** 26. Forbids[illegible] of images

THE VISIGOTHS.

77. The **Visigoths** or West Goths, subdue all Spain, except Galicia and Navarre in the North.
83. The **Suevi** (Galicia) subdued by the Visigoths.
12. Saracens from N[illegible] Africa (Maurita[illegible] whence called M[illegible] invade Spain subdue Visigo[illegible] who retreat to[illegible] turias.

WESTERN EMPIRE UNDER THE OSTROGOTHS.

Theodoric, having established the kingdom of the **Ostrogoths** in Italy in 493, brings in 300,000 Goths, and reigns wisely, Ravenna being his capital.
25. **Athalaric:** Queen **Amalasontha,** regent.
34. **Theodatus.**
36. **Vitiges.**
37. Gen. **Belisarius** takes Rome for **Justinian.**
41. **Totila:** in 46 retakes Rome.
68. **Alboin,** King of the Lombards conquers Italy to the Tiber: Pavia his capital.
73. **Clepho.**
75. Anarchy.
84. **Autharis** establishes a Feudal system.
90. **Agilulf.** 15. **Adaduald,** orthodox believer.
90. **Gregory** primacy 6.
30. Order of Benedictines founded.
33. Bishop of Rome invited by Justinian to settle a religious controversy, as "head over all the holy churches."
49. Rome taken by **Belisarius.**
50. Again by **Totila.**
53. **Narses** defeats the Goths; 67; recalled, invites **Lombards** to invade Italy.
55. **Fifth General Council,** at Constantinople.
59. Extreme Unction, Invocation of the Virgin and Saints, introduced.
25. **Honorius I.**
80. **Sixth General Council** of the Church at Constantinople.
Publication of "[illegible]
25. **Ariovald.**
60. **Gundibert.**
63. **Grimoald.**
71. **Pertharit.**
86. **Cunibert.**

LOMBARDS.

Latin ceases to be spoken in Italy.
36. **Rotharis.** 52. **Rodoald.**
53. **Aribirtus.**
39.
18. **Pelayo** fo[illegible] the kingdo
1. **Ragimbert,** usurper **Aribert II.**
12. **Anspranda. Luitprand:** tak[illegible] Ravenna; invades Roman
50
40. **Severinus.**
40. **John I.**
55 to end of century, ten Popes rule.
15. Gregory invokes Venice
31. Grego

PAPA

Gregory I, the Great, maintains primacy of the Roman See.
6. **Boniface III** induces Emperor to name Roman Pontiff as Universal Bishop.
42. **Theodore.**
49. **Martin I.**
7. **Boniface IV.**
7. The Pantheon at Rome dedicated as a Christian church.
41. Z[illegible] t

GAUL UNDER THE FRANKS; AND FRANCE.

Pharamond, the Frank, in 420 led his tribes to North Gaul.
448. **Merovæus (Merwig)** begins **MEROVINGIAN** Kings.
486. **Clovis** conquers Gaul from Rome; **Kingdom of France.**
511. Clovis dies; kingdom divided between his sons: **Childebert; Clotaire I; Clodomir; Thierry.**
59. Clotaire reunites kingdom: at his death (62) again divided: **Chilperic; Charibert; Grotan; Sigebert.**
84. **Clotaire II** reunites kingdom.
28. **Dagobert I:** commits all power to Mayor of the Palace.
87. **Pepin d'Heristal,**
38. **Clovis II, Dagobert II.** Mayor, masters and rules France nominally king.
65. **Clotaire II.**
73. **Thierry III.**
11. **Dagobert III.**
15. **Chilperic II.**
20. **Thierry IV.**
47. **Chilperic II**
ce, **Thierry**
g.
14. **Charles Martel** Mayor. Conquers Saxons Frisians, Burg
32. Defeats Spa[illegible] cens at Poitie[illegible] saving Europe power.

SAXON HEPTARCHY.

27. **Essex,** founded by **Sigobert.**
47. **Northumbria:** founder, **Idda.**
71. **East Anglia:** founder, **Offa.**
19. **Wessex:** founded by **Cerdic.**
84. **Murcia:** Two others been founded **Sussex,** 491, by **Ella.**
97. **Augustine** (Austin), Benedictine monk, sent by Pope Gregory, preaches to the Saxons; baptizes King Ethelbert of Kent and 10,000 people; is made first
7. Battle of Chester establishes supremacy of the Saxons. The native Celtic Britons (Christians) retreated to Wales, Cornwall, and Brittany in France.
founder, Crida.
of the "Seven Kingdoms" had before: **Kent,** 455, by **Hengist;**
35. "The Engli[illegible] histor

WALES.

The conquered Britons retreated before the Saxons into Wales and C[illegible]
13. **Cadwan.** 34. **Cadwall.** 78. **Cadwallader.** 86. **Idwallo.**
20. **Roderic I.**

HISTORICAL CHARTS
No. IV
THE DARK AGES.
From 500 to 1000 A. D.
Rearranged on the basis of Lyman's Historical Chart, 1875.

800 900 1000

l Mansor: cruel, able,
tron of learning.
2. Builds Bagdad
s. as capital.

86. Haroun Al R
famous of Ab
wise, liberal,
reign "the A
ugustan age
of Saracenic l

y Abdalrahman.
feated at Poitiers.
iees.
founds dynasty of
MIDES.

ia, Persia, Egypt,

7. Al Amin.
13. Al Mamun,
"Father of Letters."
aschid, most
bassides;
great. His
ugustan age
literature."

61. Al Montaser.
62. Al Mosteim.
65. Al Motaz.
68. Al Motah
33. Al Motassem.
42. Al Wathek.
46. Al Motawakkel.
69. Al Mota
40. Turkish slaves organized a
of the Caliphs.

92. Al

7. Al Moktador: Saracenic Empire at the pinnacle of its splendor. *But*—
Sects arising; Turkish tribes making incursions: Caliphates of Bagdad and of Cordova (Spain) rivals; Caliphate (Fatimite) of North Africa also claiming independence:—**beginnings of weakness.**
36. Turkish mercenaries elect a chief
med. **Emir**, who controls the Caliph.
s body guards

Motahded.
During this century the Bagdad Caliphate rapidly declined in power and influence—a mere instrument of the rapacious Turkish guards: preparing the way for Turkish conquest of next century.

EMPIRE.

Libya, Numidia.

n- 75. **Leo IV**, icon
icon- 81. **Constan**
infant;
queen-regent;
v. image-wors
on
mult. 88. Murde

oclast. 11. **Michael I.**
tine VI, 13. Leo V.
Irene 20. **Michael II**, the
restores Stammerer.
hip. 42. **Michael III**, the
2. **Nicephorus.** Drunkard.
rs her son; becomes empress.

67. **Basil I** founds t
MACEDONIAN
a vigorous and
drove Saracen
began Gr
laws.
86. Leo V, t

11. **Constantine VII.** 63. **Nicephorus Phocas**
he 19. **Romanus I**, usurper. resists Saracens.
DYNASTY;
successful ruler: 42. **Constantine VII** restored.
s from Italy; 59. **Romanus II.**
eek digest of 69. **John Zimiscos.**
76. **Basil II.**
he Philosopher. **Constantine VIII.**

Abderrahman. Saracen of the Ommiades, founds Caliphate of Cordova in Spain: he and successors, promoters of literature and science.

7. Insurrection; crushed; exiled insurgents captu
22. **Abderrahman II:** promotes art and learn
44. Incursion of Normans from Scandinavia by sea.
52. **Mohammed I.**
60–81. Omar's rebellion.
89. **Abdallah**, a wise ruler.

re Crete. 12. **Abderrahman III**, under whom the
ing. Moorish empire in Spain attained its greatest height and splendor, for art, architecture, science, learning, etc.
61. **Al Hakim.**
76. **Hisham**, regent.
Almansor, wise and brave. Defeats Spanish Christians.

I, wrests provinces
STURIAS.
91.

from the Moors. 66. **Alfonso III**, wins many victories over the Moors. Captures **Leon.**
Alfonso II.

10. **Garcia.** 27. **Ramiro.** 50. **Ordono III.**
14 **Ordono II.** *Heroic age of Spain.* 82. **Bermudo II** defeated by Moors.

ildebrand.
Rachis.
Astolph: threaten
is defeated by **Pe**
6. **Desider ius** renew

14. **Louis I**, Emp. 55. **Louis II**, Emp. 75. **Cha**
40. **Lothaire I**, Emperor. 77. **Carloman.** 94.
s Rome; 81. **Charles the Fat.**
pin.
s war with Rome; conquered by Charlemagne. 89.

rles the Bald, Emp. 22. **Rudolph** of Burgundy.
Lambert. 26. **Hugh** of Provence.
1. **Louis** of Arles. 50. **Berenger II**, in 62 de-
5. **Berenger** again. posed by **Otho I** of Saxony.
Guy of Spoleto and **Berenger** dispute the crown.

72. **Adria n** appeals to **Charlemagne** against the Lombards.
74. **Ch** arlemagne ends the Lombard kingdom, annexes
Ita ly to his empire, enlarging the Papal territories.
n II asks aid from **P** **epin**, who defeats 58. **Nicholas I** maintains Papvinces to the Pope, pal authority as against
ral power. Lothair, K. of Lorraine.
72. **John VIII** crowns Emperors Charles the Bald (75) and Charles the Fat (79).
aid.
ds, and restores pro
ng the Papal tempo
ombards.
ks Charles Martel's

14. **John X:** in 16 defeats the Saracens.
55. **John XII:** calls **Otho** the German to his aid against **Berenger II**; in 62 crowns Otho emperor, but then conspires against him. In 64 Otho deposes John and makes **Leo VIII** pope, devoted to German interests. Papal power becomes subservient to Germany.

CHURCH.

48. **Eighth General Council**, Constan
49. **Leo IV** repels Saracens besieg
99. **Gerbert**, a famous educator and renowned archbishop, becomes pope, as **Sylvester II.**
rinople.
ing Rome.

aids Pepin (52) to
e of Childeric.

95. **Leo III:** as Emp
87. **Seventh General**
ecretals" of early C

in 800 crowns Charlemagne
eror of the West.
Council (Second at Nicæa).
ouncils strengthened influence of Episcopate.

91. **Formosus.**
96. **Stephen** beheads
VII digs up body of Formosus,
it, throws corpse into Tiber;
is himself strangled in prison.

n the Short, son of
les Martel, succeeds
ayor.
With Pope's decision
ethrones Chilperic
nd becomes King—
ounding **CARLOVIN-**
IAN DYNASTY.

Charlemagne crowned Em- From 16, when **Louis**
peror of the Romans; great; divided his empire
warrior, ruler, patron of let- between his 3 sons,
ters Essentially a German, civil war reigned to
residing at Aix-la-Chapelle, 40, when he died. In
his empire included half of 43, **Lothaire** compell-
Spain, half of Italy, France, ed the treaty of Ver-
Germany, and Austria. dun; he taking
14. **Charlemagne** dies: **Louis I** as Emperor
feeble successor. Italy, Bur-
Great (Charlemagne) gundy, and Lorraine;
an (sons of Pepin). **Louis**, German Bava-
dies ria; **Charles the Bald**,
arlemagne subdues the **France.**
Saxons seven times.
Northmen from Scandinavia ravage the coasts of France and Spain throughout this century.

22. **Robert, the Usurper.**
23. **Rudolph**
36. **Louis IV.**
50. **Hugh the Great**, powerful lord, after revolt makes peace.
54. **Lothaire.**
86. **Louis the Lazy.**
87. **Hugh Capet**, son of Hugh the Great, elected king when Louis dies without issue; founds the **CAPETAN DYNASTY.**

ra- 68. **Charles the**
rs), and **Carlom**
eir 71. Carloman
72–803. Ch
98. **Charles the Simple.**

ble" **Bede**, learned
and ecclesiastical
s.

nity to the pagan
shop of Canterbury.

Egbert the Great reigns in Wessex and Sussex.
19. Conquers Kent
24. Conquers Essex.
27 Conquers other kingdoms; is sole king.

72. **Alfred the Gre**
rior, ruler, scholar:
England against the Da
stitutes legal and edu
reforms. 86. Founds O
60. **Ethelbert.** 66. **Ethelre**

at, war- 25. **Athelstan**, able, 59. **Edgar.**
defends successful 75. **Edward II.**
nes; in- 40. **Edmund.** 78. **Ethelred II.**
cational 46. Assassinated.
xford University. **Edred** succeeds
d. 1. **Edward the Elder.** 55 Edwy.

. **Conan.**

18. **Merwin Uriel.** 43
King of Man; his
wife heiress of
Wales.

Roderick II. 77 Divides
kingdom among 3
sons: North and
South Wales and
Powy's Land.

40. **Howell Dha** 82. **Cadwallen.**
rules all Wales. 92 **Edwall III.**
48 **Javaf** and **Jago.**
13. Edwall II. 72. **Howell**; defeats the
Danes and the English.

CHAPTER XXII.

MOHAMMEDAN EMPIRES.

SECTION I.—PERSIA AND THE GHIZNIVIDE EMPIRE.

Persia under the Arabian Dominion.

After the Arabian conquest of Persia in A. D. 641, Arabian governors were appointed in the conquered country, and colonies from the burning sands of Arabia spread over the cold regions of Khorassan and Balkh. These colonies flourished in the soil to which they were transplanted. As before remarked, Persia remained under the dominion of the Khalifs for more than two centuries, during which the Persian people became Mohammedans. Persian history during this period is to be found in the history of the Moslem conquerors of the country, and even there it occupies a small and unimportant space. The only events of consequence are petty revolts of insubordinate governors, who attempted to erect their provinces into hereditary principalities when the power of the Khalifs declined.

Growing Weakness of that Dominion.

Many of the Persians who refused to accept Islam fled to other lands to escape death or oppression; but the fury of religious enthusiasm soon spent itself, and when the Khalif's person was no longer regarded as sacred the Persian scepter was ready to fall from the grasp of Omar's and Ali's feeble successors. So dazzling a prize soon tempted the ambitious native chieftains of Persia; and it was soon obtained by a man of humble origin, but who was ennobled by his valor, generosity and wisdom.

Yakoob ben Leis.

This man was Yakoob (Jacob) ben Leis, the son of a pewterer of Seistan. When young he worked at his father's trade, but all his gains were squandered among boys, with whom his boldness and prodigality made him a favorite. As he grew up, tempted by the distracted condition of his country, he became a robber, and was followed by those whom his liberality from childhood had attached to his fortunes. The number of his attendants and the success of his enterprises soon gave him wealth. The change from the successful robber to the renowned chieftain was easy in such a condition of society. His assistance was sought by the usurping governor of Seistan, and he profited by the

confidence thus reposed in him by at once seizing the person of his ally and the authority which he had assumed.

Yakoob and the Khalif of Bagdad.

The Khalif of Bagdad gladly received the alliance of Yakoob ben Leis, and gave him a commission to make war against his rebellious tributaries; but the bold and unscrupulous adventurer again betrayed his trust, making himself master of most of Eastern Persia. The Khalif sent an army commanded by his brother, who defeated Yakoob near Bagdad; but Yakoob was undismayed by this casual reverse, and soon recruited his forces, after which he marched against Bagdad. The Khalif sent another mission to Yakoob, who was dangerously ill when it reached his camp.

Yakoob and the Khalif's Envoy.

Yakoob ordered that the Khalif's envoy should be brought into his presence, and that his sword, some coarse bread and dried onions should be laid before him. Yakoob said to the envoy: "Tell your master that if I live, this sword shall decide between us. If I conquer, I will do as I please; if I am conquered, this coarse fare will suffice for me." This speech, indicating his stern resolution, is the last act recorded of Yakoob ben Leis, who died two days later, A. D. 877, transmitting almost all of Persia to his brother Amer.

His Character and Rule.

The Oriental writers describe Yakoob ben Leis as a person whose manners were most pleasant and conciliatory, while also characterized by great simplicity. The attachment of his followers to his person and fortunes was extreme, and the playmates of his boyhood attained the most exalted positions in the government. He is also called Soffar, and the dynasty which he founded is called the Soffarides.

Soffarides.

Amer and the Bagdad Khalif.

Amer, Yakoob's brother and successor, showed a very different disposition by his conduct towards the Khalif of Bagdad, addressing him a respectful letter, and consenting to hold Persia as the nominal vassal of the Khalif. He prospered for some years, during which he sent yearly presents to the Commander of the Faithful. But this loyalty did not last, as disagreements and wars arose. Unable to enforce his authority, the Khalif instigated a chief of Transoxiana to attack his rebellious vassal.

Amer's Unsuccessful Expedition against the Tartars.

Amer sent one of his generals against the Transoxianian chief, but this general was defeatel; and Amer resolved to advance across the Oxus, in opposition to the advice of his counselors. He led an army of seventy thousand men in this expedition. The Tartar chieftain did not have more than twenty thousand men; but valor overcame numbers, and the Persians were utterly routed. Amer fled, but was taken prisoner after his horse had fallen.

Taker.

The fortunes of Amer's family fell with him. His grandson Taker struggled for power in his native province; but after a reign of six years his authority was subverted by one of his own officers, who seized

him and sent him a prisoner to Bagdad. The only prince of the family who attained any eminence was a chief named Kuliph, who established himself in Seistan and maintained his power over that province until Mahmoud of Ghizni defeated him and made him prisoner.

Fall of the Soffarides.

From the fall of the dynasty of Yakoob ben Leis to the rise of Mahmoud of Ghizni is a period of almost a century; during which Persia was divided between the two families of Samanee and Dilamee—the first reigning over Eastern Persia and Afghanistan, and the other over Western Persia. These two dynasties distracted Persia by their wars.

Rival Dynasties of Samanee and Dilamee.

Ismail Samanee traced his descent from Bahram Choubeen, the warrior who contended with Khosrou Parviz for the Persian crown. Oriental writers represent him as brave, generous, pious and just. He took Amer prisoner, and when that prince offered to ransom himself by revealing immense treasures Ismail spurned the offer, saying: "Your family were pewterers. Fortune favored you for a day, and you abused her favors by plundering the faithful. That wicked act has rendered your fall as rapid as your rise. Seek not to make my fate like yours, as it would be if I soiled my hands with such sacrilegious wealth!"

Ismail Samanee and Amer.

But Ismail's virtue underwent a severer test. After he had taken the city of Herat, his army was greatly in need of money. Ismail had given his word not to levy a contribution on that city, but his soldiers clamored that he should consider their merits and necessities before a pledge which he had given too hastily. Ismail was firm; and as his army became more distressed every hour, he ordered them to march away, lest the temptation to violate his word should be too great. He pitched his camp not far from Herat, where his wants were relieved by a singular accident. In a dry well were found several boxes of treasures, which proved to be part of Amer's wealth which had been stolen by one of his servants from the palace of Seistan. Ismail rejoiced at this good fortune. He paid his soldiers, and bade them learn from what had occurred that God would never desert the man who withstood temptation and preserved his faith inviolate.

Ismail's Honorable Conduct at Herat.

The Dilamee family received their name from their native village, and traced their descent to the ancient Persian kings, but the first of the dynasty mentioned in history was the fisherman Dilam. His son, Ali Buyah, who held a command in the Persian army, defeated the governor of Ispahan, who held his authority under the Khalif of Bagdad. By the immense plunder obtained by this victory Ali Buyah at once acquired renown. He drove the Khalif from his capital, but the Khalif made a treaty with him, appointing him viceroy of Fars and Irak. Accidental discoveries of treasures gave him immense

Origin of the Dilamee Family.

Ali Buyah and the Bagdad Khalif.

Ali Buyah's Dominion.

wealth and promoted his advance in power by enabling him to enlarge his territory, so that he became master of all the provinces from Khorassan to Bagdad. After a few generations this dominion was transferred to Mahmoud of Ghizni, with whom commenced the Ghiznivide empire.

Origin of the Ghiznivide Empire.

The Ghiznivide empire derives its names from Ghizni, or Ghazni, a city of Afghanistan, about sixty miles south of Cabul. The history of the Ghiznivide sovereigns has usually been included in that of Persia, though their dominions were not always comprised within the limits of Persia proper.

Its Founder, Abustakeen.

The founder of the Ghiznivide empire was ABUSTAKEEN, a noble of Bokhara, who, about the year A. D. 976, renounced his allegiance to Munsoor, a prince of the Samanee dynasty, and retired to Ghizni at the head of seven or eight hundred followers. By successful wars with the Persians, Abustakeen was enabled to establish a petty principality, with Ghizni for its capital.

Subuctageen's Conquests in India.

SUBUCTAGEEN, one of Abustakeen's successors, turned his arms against Hindoostan, for the purpose of acquiring fame and plunder, and extending Islam. Subustageen defeated Jypaul, the sovereign of Northern India, captured Cabul, and overran the fine province of the Punjab, in his first campaign; and in his second he was still more successful. After being severely defeated, Jypaul submitted, agreeing to pay tribute.

His Son Mahmoud and the Hindoo Prince.

The zeal of the young Mahmoud, Subuctageen's son, spurned these offers. He vehemently urged his father to make no compact with idolators. When the Hindoo prince heard of Mahmoud's intolerance he bade him beware how he drove brave men to despair. Said he: "My followers, who appear so mild and submissive, will, if they are irritated, soon change their character. They will murder their wives and children, burn their houses, loosen their hair, and rush upon your ranks with the energy of men whose only desire is revenge and death."

Mahmoud's Accession.

Subuctageen knew that there was truth in this threat, and disregarded his son's advice. But within a year the armies of Ghizni overran Jypaul's territory with frightful slaughter. Subuctageen died soon afterwards, and was succeeded by his son MAHMOUD, A. D. 977. Mahmoud ascended the throne of Ghiznzi at a ripe age, when his powers were matured by experience in war and government.

His Moslem Zeal and Military Ambition.

His ruling passions were devotion to the Mohammedan religion and the love of military glory. Both these passions had become ardent from restraint, and blazed forth on his accession to power with a lustre which, according to a Mohammedan author, filled the whole world with terror and admiration.

His Religious War in India.

After securing the friendship of the Khalif of Bagdad, and marrying a Tartar princess, Mahmoud of Ghizni began a religious war against the idolators of Hindoostan, and this war occupied most of his reign.

Jypaul's Self Immolation.

He was completely successful in his first two campaigns. Unable to defend his dominions, Jypaul resolved to heroically sacrifice his own life to propitiate the gods whom he adored, hoping to see the divine interposition manifested for the defense of the national religion. He transferred the government of his dominions to his son, after which he mounted a funeral pile and prayed that his death amid the flames might expiate those sins which he imagined had subjected his unhappy kingdom to the Divine vengeance.

Mahmoud's Victory over Anundpal.

Anundpal, Jypaul's son and successor, was as unfortunate as his father. His army, encamped near the Indus, is said to have exceeded three hundred thousand men. Mahmoud seems to have regarded it with some apprehension. He remained in sight of it for forty days without coming to an action, defending his camp by a deep intrenchment. His enemies at length determined to attack him. The trench was carried by the fury of the first assailants, and many of Mahmoud's army were slain; but in the midst of this success Anundpal's elephant took flight, thus carrying dismay and confusion among the Hindoo ranks, so that Anundpal's troops instantly fled, and were pursued for two days, during which more than twenty thousand were slain.

Mahmoud's Immense Booty.

Mahmoud followed up his victory by advancing into Hindoostan, destroying temples and idols, and seizing the wealth of those whom he had vanquished. On his return to Ghizni he celebrated a festival, at which he displayed to the admiring and astonished people golden thrones, magnificently ornamented, constructed from the plunder of twenty-six thousand pounds of gold and silver plate, with fourteen hundred and eighty pounds of pure gold, seventy-four thousand pounds of silver, and seven hundred and forty pounds of set jewels.

His Destruction of Hindoo Idols.

Mahmoud led his next expedition against Jannaser, a famous site of Hindoo worship, seventy miles north of Delhi. The temple at that place was destroyed by the fanatic zeal of Mahmoud, who broke its famous idol, Jugsoom, and sent its fragments to Ghizni to be converted into steps for the principal mosque, so that the faithful might tread on the mutilated image of superstition as they entered the temple of the One True God.

His Conquest of Cashmere.

Mahmoud passed the next two years in the conquest of Cashmere and the hilly provinces in its vicinity. Many of the people in all the territories conquered by Mahmoud and annexed to his empire were forced to accept Islam.

His Additional Conquests in India

While Mahmoud was establishing his authority in Khorassan, Hindoostan obtained a brief respite of a year. When he had accomplished this task he prepared to attack the celebrated Hindoo city of Kinoge. Though the distance was great and the obstacles numerous, Mahmoud began his march with a hundred thousand cavalry and thirty thousand infantry—the flower of his army. His movements were so

His Destruction of Idols.

rapid that the city was utterly surprised and fell an easy prey to the invader. He then conquered Meerut, a great and opulent principality. He took the holy city of Muttra, and broke all the idols in the place, but did not destroy its great and solid temples. In the letters which he wrote to Ghizni he gave the most glowing description of the architecture of these elegant structures. When he returned to his capital his own share of the plunder was estimated at two million two hundred and fifty thousand dollars in money, fifty-three thousand captives, three hundred and fifty elephants, and a vast quantity of jewels. The private spoil of the army was much greater.

His Vast Spoils.

His Adornment of His Capital, Ghiznee.

After this triumph Mahmoud seemed disposed to indulge himself with a period of rest. He employed some of the wealth which he had amassed in adorning his capital. The nobles of Ghizni imitated their king's example, and Ghizni soon rivaled the most celebrated Oriental cities in the elegance and magnitude of its public and private edifices. The grand mosque erected by Mahmoud surpassed every other structure. The beauty of the marble of which it was constructed, and the superior style of its architecture, were admirable, as were also the elegance of the carpets and the golden branch-lights with which it was ornamented. Mahmoud's vanity was flattered by hearing this favorite edifice styled the "Celestial Bride."

Mahmoud and the Bagdad Khalif.

Mahmoud sent an account of his victories written in verse to the Khalif of Bagdad, with a variety of valuable presents. This poetic eulogy was read publicly at the Khalif's capital, and every means was employed to stimulate Mahmoud's pride and bigotry to further exertions in the Mohammedan cause.

Mahmoud and the Temple at Gujerat.

Mahmoud's zeal and avarice required no stimulant. He had heard of a rich Hindoo temple in Gujerat, the priests of which boasted of the power of their famous idol Somnauth, and ascribed all the misfortunes of Northern India to the impiety of the inhabitants. Mahmoud resolved to destroy this idol. He marched to Somnauth, which the Persian authors describe as a lofty castle situated on a narrow peninsula, bounded by the ocean on three sides.

A Hindoo Herald's Message.

No sooner had Mahmoud encamped near the temple than a herald from the castle informed him that the god Somnauth had brought the Mohammedans before the walls of this temple that he might blast them with his wrath. Mahmoud smiled at the idol's threatened vengeance, and gave orders for the attack the following morning.

Desperate Hindoo Defense.

The Hindoos were driven from the walls at the first assault, and assembled about their idol, vainly imploring its aid. As they found no supernatural assistance at hand, they rushed upon their Moslem enemies with the fury of despair, and drove them back from their walls. Night put an end to the frightful carnage, and the assault was

renewed on the following morning with increased vigor. Mahmoud's warriors mounted the walls everywhere, but were everywhere cast down headlong by the Hindoos, whose eyes are said to have been streaming with tears, while their bosoms were burning with rage. They believed that the god whom they adored had abandoned them, and their only desire for life was to take vengeance on their enemies. Their desperate valor forced Mahmoud to raise the siege.

Hindoo Valor and Fanaticism.

The Hindoos were unexpectedly reinforced, and the battle was renewed. Mahmoud saw his soldiers were exhausted and giving way before the foe. He sprang from his horse, prostrated himself on the ground, and implored God to favor the one whose desire was to advance the glory of His holy name. He remounted his steed in an instant, seized one of his bravest generals by the hand, invited him to charge the enemy, and win either a glorious victory or a crown of martyrdom. When Mahmoud's soldiers saw that their sovereign was resolved not to survive defeat, they determined to share his fate and again rushed into battle with irresistible fury. The Hindoos fled in all directions, and Mahmoud's valor was crowned with a brilliant victory.

Mahmoud's Moslem Valor and Fanaticism.

His Decisive Victory.

The inhabitants of Somnauth had watched the battle with extreme solicitude, and when they saw that all was lost they abandoned the walls which they had so gallantly defended. Many of them put to sea with their families and property, but were pursued and captured. The spoil found in the temple was immense. But the destruction of the famous idol—a gigantic image fifteen feet high—was the glory claimed by Mahmoud.

Flight and Capture of the Vanquished.

Vast Spoil.

After giving the image a blow with his mace, Mahmoud ordered it to be broken and that two fragments of it should be sent to Ghizni, one to be placed at the doorway of the great mosque, and the other in the court of his palace. Two pieces were to be sent to Mecca and Medina. Some Brahmans came forward at this moment and offered several millions of money if Mahmoud would spare the idol. Mahmoud's officers advised him to accept the ransom; but he exclaimed that he desired the title of a breaker, not a seller, of idols, and ordered that the idol should be instantly demolished. It was accordingly burst open, and a vast quantity of rich jewels was discovered within, the value of which far exceeded the ransom which had been offered by the Brahmans.

Mahmoud's Destruction of the Idol Somnauth.

Immense Plunder.

Mahmoud extended his dominions by conquest until his empire equalled in power the New Persian Empire of the Sassanidae under the Sapors and the Khosrous, extending to Bokhara and Kashgar on the north, to Bengal and the Deccan on the east and south, and to Bagdad and Georgia on the west. Mahmoud died in a magnificent palace which he had vainly styled "The Palace of Felicity." Just before he expired he took a last and mournful view of his army, his court, and the

Mahmoud's Conquests and Vast Dominions.

His Death.

vast treasures which he had amassed by his wonderful successes. He is said to have burst into tears at the sight.

His Patronage of Architecture and Literature.

Mahmoud's court was splendid beyond example. The edifices which he erected were noble monuments of architecture, and he was a most liberal patron of learned men and poets. We are indebted to his love of literature for all that remains of the history of ancient Persia contained in the noble epic poem entitled the *Shah Nameh*, "Book of Kings," written by Firdusi, the celebrated Persian poet of the eleventh century.

His Love of War and Religious Persecution.

The dark shades of Mahmoud's character were his love of war and his religious persecution. In every country which he subdued the horrors of war were increased by religious fanaticism. The desolation wrought by his conquering hosts is illustrated by a popular tale. Mahmoud's Vizier pretended to know the language of birds. One day, as Mahmoud and his Vizier were walking in a forest, they observed a couple of owls perched together on a tree. Mahmoud desired to know the subject of their conversation. The Vizier, after pretending to listen to the birds, replied: "The old owl is making a match with the other for her daughter. She offers a hundred ruined villages as her dowry, and says, 'God grant a long life to Sultan Mahmoud, and we shall never want for ruined villages.'"

Anecdote of Mahmoud and His Vizier.

Decline of the Ghiznivide Empire under Masoud

Mahmoud died A. D. 1028, and the decline and fall of the Ghiznivide dynasty was as rapid as its rise. Masoud, Mahmoud's son and successor, made several incursions into Hindoostan to maintain the tranquillity of the territories acquired by his father in that country; but the Seljuk Turks made inroads into his own dominions and completely defeated him.

Rapid Decline under Madood.

Masoud was succeeded by his brother Madood, and the Ghiznivide empire declined very rapidly during the latter's reign. For more than a century the history of this empire presents nothing but an uninteresting and disgusting detail of petty wars, rebellions and massacres.

Capture and Recovery of Ghiznee.

During Byram's reign Ghizni was captured by Souri, an Afghan prince of Ghour; but Byram, favored by the attachment of the inhabitants, recovered his capital and took his enemy captive, thus triumphing in the end.

Byram's Cruelty to Souri.

Byram disgraced his victory by the cruelties which he inflicted on his captive, in retaliation for the disgrace which he had suffered. He caused Souri to be stripped, painted black, then mounted upon a lean bullock, with his face turned in an opposite direction from the animal's head, and to be carried through the streets of Ghizni in that condition. After being exposed to all the insults of the mob, Souri was put to death by the most cruel torture, and his head was sent to Sanjar, the Seljuk Turkish Sultan, in token of triumph.

Allah, Souri's brother, upon hearing of his fate, summoned his mountaineers to arms, and led them to Ghizni, breathing vengeance against his brother's murderers. The fury of the Afghans was irresistible. Byram was thrown from his elephant, saved his life with difficulty, and fled into Hindoostan. His army was totally routed, and the victorious Allah entered Ghizni, which suffered for a full week from the fury of his soldiers, who perpetrated the most shocking horrors, sparing neither age nor sex. The humble shed, the stately palace, the sacred temple, all were involved in one common ruin. Many of the nobles and priests who had been made captives were conveyed to Ghour, and there publicly put to death, their blood being used to wet the mortar for repairing the walls of that city.

Capture and Destruction of Ghiznee by Allah, Souri's Brother.

Byram's cruelty was visited on his posterity. His grandson, Khosrou II., was taken captive by Allah and put to death, thus ending the dynasty whose fame in history may be solely assigned to Mahmoud. They were overthrown by a family which had for a long time submitted to them, but whose doubtful allegiance was a source of constant uneasiness; as the princes of Ghour, who were descended from Tobak, and who boasted that their ancestors had successfully opposed Feridoon, reluctantly submitted to the sovereigns of Ghizni. The situation of their country, amid rugged and barren mountains, was favorable to insurrection; and their power increased as that of Mahmoud's successors declined, until they finally rose on the ruin of the Ghiznivide dynasty, ascending not only the throne of Ghizni, but also that of Hindoostan. The Ghiznivide empire ended A. D. 1160, when Persia had been under the dominion of the Seljuk Turks for a century and a-half.

End of the Ghiznivide Dynasty.

The Princes of Ghour.

SECTION II.—EMPIRE OF THE SELJUK TURKS.

In the eleventh century a new power arose in Western Asia, which swayed the destinies of that quarter of the world for about a century. This new power was the Seljuk Turks, who derived their name from Seljuk, a famous chief, who was obliged to leave the court of Bighoo Khan, the sovereign of the Turks of Kipzak, who inhabited the plains of Khozar. Seljuk and his followers emigrated from the steppes of Tartary to the plains of Bokhara, early in the eleventh century.

Seljuk and the Seljuk Turks.

Seljuk died at a very advanced age; and his son Michael was known to Mahmoud of Ghizni, the celebrated Afghan conqueror of Persia and India, by whom he was greatly honored, and who is said to have persuaded him to cross the Oxus and settle in Khorassan. The first lands which this Turkish tribe received from the Ghiznivide dynasty were granted by Masoud, Mahmoud's successor, A. D. 1037. Masoud

Their Settlement in Khorassan.

Togrul.

was obliged to enter into a treaty with the Seljuk Turks on account of his inability to oppose their progress. TOGRUL, the Turkish leader, assumed the title and state of a sovereign at Nishapur, in Khorassan.

His Conquest of Irak and Capture of Bagdad and Mosul.

From that point Togrul extended his conquests westward, encouraged thereto by the distracted condition of the dominions of the Khalif of Bagdad. Leaving his brother Daood in Khorassan, he advanced into the Persian province of Irak, which he subdued. He then marched against Bagdad, captured that city, and took the Khalif Al Kaymen prisoner. After this he led an expedition against Mosul and its vicinity, which he soon conquered; after which he returned to Bagdad in triumph, and was there received by Al Kaymen with great pomp and magnificence.

Togrul and the Bagdad Khalif.

We are told that the Turkish monarch approached the Commander of the Faithful on foot, accompanied by his nobles, who laid aside their arms and joined in the procession. The Khalif appeared with all the equipage of state that belonged to his high office, seated on a throne, which was concealed by a dark veil. The celebrated *bourda*, or black mantle, of the Abbássides, was thrown over his shoulder, while his right hand held Mohammed's staff.

Togrul's Commission as Vicar of the Holy Prophet.

Togrul kissed the ground, stood in a respectful posture for a short time, and was then led to the Khalif, near whom he was seated on a throne. His commission was then read, appointing him the lieutenant, or Viceregent, or the Vicar of the Holy Prophet, and the lord of all the Mohammedans. He was invested with seven dresses, and seven slaves were bestowed upon him; this ceremony implying that he was appointed to rule the seven regions subject to the Khalif of Bagdad. A veil of gold stuff, scented with musk, was thrown over his head, on which were placed two crowns, one for Arabia and the other for Persia. Two swords were girt on his loins, to signify that he was ruler of the East and the West. This display satisfied the Khalif's pride, and the Turkish chieftain was pleased to receive a sanction for his conquests from the spiritual head of Islam, who was still considered by orthodox Moslems the only source of legitimate authority.

His Conquest of Persia.

Togrul quickly subdued all Persia, and adopted measures to organize a permanent dominion in that country. He appears to have possessed all the good and bad qualities of a Tartar chieftain. He was violent in temper and insatiable of conquest, but was likewise distinguished for

His Character and Actions.

his courage, frankness and generosity. His family and tribe were converted to Islam when Seljuk first settled near Bokhara. The Khalif of Bagdad greeted Togrul on his first victories in Persia with the title of *Rukun u Deen*, "the Pillar of the Faith," and he seems to have promoted with zeal the religion which he professed. He erected many mosques, and patronized pious and learned men.

Togrul died A. D. 1063, and was succeeded by his nephew ALP ARSLAN, "the Conquering Lion," who was noted for his valor, generosity, and love of learning. The Mohammedan writers represent him as one of the best among Asiatic sovereigns, as he was certainly one of the most renowned. But he was a cruel persecutor of the Christians of Armenia, Georgia and Iberia, and such are the actions which the Mussulman historians describe as the most commendable. It was his custom to put a large iron collar—or, according to some writers, a horseshoe—as a mark of ignominy, on the back of every Christian who refused to renounce his religion and accept Islam. His invasion of Georgia, and the severities with which he treated the inhabitants of that country who manifested reluctance to embrace the Moslem faith, aroused the court of the Eastern Roman Emperor to a sense of its imminent peril from the Turkish armies, which had by this time advanced into Asia Minor as far west as Phrygia.

Alp-Arslan.

His Good Side.

His Persecution of Christians in Armenia, Georgia and Iberia.

The Eastern Emperor Romanus Diogenes led his armies against the invaders, and by his skill and courage forced them back upon their frontier. Romanus Diogenes desired to improve his success, and marched into Armenia and Azerbijan. He encountered Alp Arslan near the village of Konongo, in Azerbijan. The Turkish monarch was confident in his own courage and that of his own army, but trembled at the thought of shedding Moslem blood, and offered liberal terms to the Eastern Roman Emperor.

Alp Arslan and Romanus Diogenes.

The Mohammedan historians tells us that Romanus Diogenes ascribed Alp Arslan's moderation to a wrong cause, and insolently replied that he would listen to no terms unless the Turkish sovereign abandoned his camp to the Roman army and surrendered his capital, Rei, as a pledge of his sincere desire for peace.

Demand of Romanus Diogenes.

When Alp Arslan heard this reply he prepared for action. Romanus Diogenes was confident of victory, and Alp Arslan resolved not to survive defeat. The Turkish monarch made a display of pious resignation by tying up his horse's tail and clothing himself in a white robe or shroud, perfumed with musk. He exchanged his bow and arrows for a cimeter and mace; while his conduct, his dress and his speeches proclaimed to every soldier that if he was unable to preserve his earthly dominion by a victory over the unbelievers he was determined to obtain a crown of martyrdom.

Alp Arslan's Preparations.

The troops of Romanus Diogenes began the engagement and were at first victorious; but the Emperor had led them too far, and when he desired to retreat to his camp his ranks were thrown into a panic by the cowardice and treachery of his followers. Alp Arslan took advantage of the crisis, and a general charge of his entire army completed the defeat of the Christian host. The Emperor Romanus Diogenes

His Victory over Romanus Diogenes.

was wounded and taken prisoner by an obscure officer whom Alp Arslan at a general review on the morning of that day had threatened to disgrace on account of his mean and deformed appearance.

Captivity of Romanus Diogenes.

The illustrious prisoner was taken before the Turkish Sultan, who treated him with the greatest kindness and consideration. At their first conference Alp Arslan asked his captive what he would have done if he had conquered. The haughty Romanus Diogenes answered: "I would have given thee many a stripe." This reply excited no anger in the conqueror, who simply smiled and asked the captive Emperor what he expected would be done to him. The Emperor replied: "If thou art cruel, put me to death; if vainglorious, load me with chains and drag me to thy capital; if generous, grant me my liberty."

Release of Romanus Diogenes.

Alp Arslan, being neither cruel nor vainglorious, released his distinguished prisoner, gave all his captives dresses of honor, and bestowed upon them every mark of respect and friendship. To requite these favors, Romanus Diogenes agreed to pay a large ransom and a fixed tribute annually; but he could never recover his throne, which had been usurped during his absence. Alp Arslan was preparing to restore the deposed Emperor to the Byzantine throne by force of arms, when he was informed that the unfortunate Romanus Diogenes had been imprisoned and put to death by his subjects.

His Overthrow and Murder.

Alp Arslan's Conquest of Khorasm.

After his triumph over the armies of the Eastern Empire, Alp Arslan determined on a still more arduous enterprise. He desired to establish the dominion of Seljuk's posterity over their native country, and he summoned his warriors to invade those immense regions whence their fathers had issued. His power now extended from Arabia to the Oxus, and his army consisted of two hundred thousand soldiers. He marched into Khorasm and subdued most of that country, after which he built a bridge over the Oxus and crossed that stream without opposition, but his proud career was now approaching its end.

His Capture of Berzem.

Alp Arslan's operations in Khorasm had been prolonged by the resistance of a small fortress called *Berzem*, defended by a chief named Yusuf. Incensed that his grand designs should have been delayed by so contemptible a fortress, the Turkish Sultan, after taking it, ordered its gallant defender to appear before him, and reproached him for his insolence and obstinacy in resisting the Turkish army. Yusuf was provoked to a violent reply, and Alp Arslan so far forgot himself as to order his captive to be put to a cruel death. Thereupon Yusuf drew his dagger and attacked the Turkish Sultan. The guards rushed in; but Alp Arslan, who considered himself unrivaled for his skill in archery, seized his bow and ordered his guards to stand aloof, and they obeyed him. The Sultan missed his aim; and before he could draw another arrow he fell under Yusuf's dagger, but the assailant instantly

His Assassination by Yusuf.

received death from a thousand of the Sultan's followers, while the wounded Sultan was conveyed to another tent.

Yusuf's Assassination by Turkish Soldiers.

Said the dying Alp Arslan to those around him: "I now call to mind two lessons which I received from a reverend sage. The one bade me despise no man; the other, not to estimate myself too highly, or to confide in my personal prowess. I have neglected what his wisdom taught. The vast numbers of my army, which I viewed yesterday from an eminence, made me believe that all obstacles would yield to my power. I have perished from my errors, and my end will show how weak is the power of kings and the force of man when opposed to the decrees of destiny."

Alp Arslan's Dying Words.

Alp Arslan lived long enough to transmit his dominion to his worthy son, MALEK SHAH, A. D. 1073. The dying Sultan entreated his son and successor to intrust the chief direction of public affairs to the wise and pious Nizam ul Mulk, a deservedly famous minister, to whose virtue and ability he ascribed the success and prosperity of his own reign. Alp Arslan's remains were interred at Merv, in Khorassan; and the following impressive sentence was inscribed on his tomb: "All who have seen the glory of Alp Arslan exalted to the heavens, come to Merv, and you will behold it buried in the dust."

Malek Shah and Nizam ul Mulk.

Alp Arslan's Epitaph at Merz.

Under Nizam ul Mulk's wise administration the empire of the Seljuk Turks attained the highest prosperity, and Persia enjoyed a degree of tranquillity which it had not seen for a long time. But this worthy minister had no military talents. In the few army operations in which he was engaged he appears to have trusted more to his piety than to his valor. When foiled in his effort to obtain possession of a castle in the province of Fars, or Persia proper, he consoled himself by the philosophical reflection that "a man should not become impatient from disappointment, as it could not cure, but it doubled the pain." When the same fortress capitulated, because the fountains which supplied it became dry, he attributed his success entirely to his prayers.

Nizam ul Mulk's Wise Administration.

Capture of a Castle in Fars.

The Sultan Malek Shah's generals conquered almost all of Syria and Egypt; and this renowned sovereign was more fortunate than his valiant father, as he subdued Bokhara, Samarcand and Khorasm, and even received homage from the Tartar and Turkish tribes beyond the Jaxartes, compelling the sovereign of the remote country of Kashgar to coin money in his name and to pay him a yearly tribute.

Turkish Conquest of Egypt, Syria and Central Asia.

It is said that when Malek Shah was crossing the Oxus the ferrymen on that river complained that they were paid by an order on the revenues of Antioch. The renowned Sultan spoke to his minister; and Nizam ul Mulk replied: "It is not to defer payment of their wages, but to display your glory and the wide extent of your dominions." Malek Shah was pleased with this flattery, and the boatmen's complaints ceased

Malek Shah and the Ferrymen on the Oxus.

when they discovered that they could negotiate the bill without loss. This circumstance is curious, as showing something of the monetary system of that time.

Malek Shah's Vast Dominions.

Malek Shah is said to have traveled over his vast empire twelve times. During his reign the Seljuk dominions extended from the Mediterranean in the west almost as far east as the Great Wall of China; and prayers were every day offered for his health in the mosques of Jerusalem, Mecca, Medina, Bagdad, Ispahan, Rei, Bokhara, Samarcand and Kashgar.

Anecdote of Malek Shah and Nizam ul Mulk.

Oriental historians relate numerous incidents to show the goodness and greatness of Malek Shah. It is said that, on coming out of a mosque, before he fought a battle with his brother, who disputed his title to the Turkish crown, he asked Nizam ul Mulk what he had prayed for. The illustrious minister replied: "I have prayed that the Almighty may give you victory over your brother." The Sultan responded: "And I prayed that God may take my life and crown if my brother is worthier than I to reign over the faithful." This noble sentiment was crowned with the success it sought as the reward of superior piety and virtue.

Disgrace and Assassination of Nizam ul Mulk.

But Malek Shah's character is marked with a blemish which all his glories cannot eradicate. He listened to Nizam ul Mulk's enemies and disgraced the old and virtuous minister, who soon afterward perished by an assassin's dagger. Malek Shah's fortunes seemed to decline from the hour of his worthy minister's fall; and the Turkish nation, which for half a century had revered the sage whom the Sultan destroyed, saw without regret the changed fortune of its ungrateful sovereign.

Death of Malek Shah.

Malek Shah survived his illustrious minister but a few months. He was greatly attached to the city of Bagdad, and desired to make that seat of the Eastern Khalifs the capital of his vast empire, endeavoring to persuade the Khalif Al Moktadi to remove to another place. The Khalif requested a delay of ten days, which was granted; but during that brief period the renowned Sultan was seized with a sudden illness, which put an end to his life, A. D. 1092.

Persia under Malek Shah.

Few sovereigns have attained to the glory and power of Malek Shah. Under his sway Persia enjoyed a longer period of tranquillity than during any other period of her history; and this tranquillity was attributable to the wise administration of Nizam ul Mulk, in whom the great Sultan implicitly confided until within a few months of his death. Persia was greatly improved during this period, many colleges and mosques being erected, and agriculture being promoted by the construction of canals and water-courses throughout that renowned Oriental land.

Learning was also encouraged, and an assembly of astronomers from every portion of Malek Shah's dominions was employed for several years in reforming the calendar. Their labors established the *Jellalean*, "the Glorious Era," which began March 15, A. D. 1079. Its name *Jellalean* was in honor of the Sultan, one of whose titles was *Jellaledeen*, "the Glory of the Faith." This great work is a remarkable evidence of the attention given in the empire of the Seljuk Turks to one of the noblest of all sciences.

His Patronage of Learning.

The Jellalean.

For a period of forty-eight years after Malek Shah's death, from A. D. 1092 to 1140, the Turkish Empire was distracted by civil wars. Malek Shah's four sons all occupied the Turkish throne in succession. SANJAR, one of these, held the government of Khorassan at the time of his father's death, and had little share in the troubles that followed; but from the time of the death of his brother MAHMOUD, in A. D. 1140, he may be considered the reigning Sultan.

Civil Wars.

Sanjar and Mahmoud.

Sanjar always resided in Khorassan, whence he extended his dominion eastward beyond the Indus, and northward beyond the Jaxartes. He compelled Byram Shah, a Ghiznivide sovereign, whose capital was Lahore, in the Punjab, to pay him tribute. To render his magnificence more complete, the Kingdom of Khorassan was bestowed on Sanjar's cupbearer —a circumstance which has caused Sultan Sanjar's flatterers to say that he was served by kings.

Sanjar's Kingdom of Khorassan.

But Sanjar, after a long reign, marked by remarkable success and splendor, experienced the most cruel reverses. He undertook a distant expedition into Tartary, to attack Ghour Khan, the sovereign of Kara Khatay, in which he suffered a signal defeat, his army being almost wholly cut to pieces, his family being made prisoners, and all his baggage being plundered. He escaped to Khorassan with a few followers, and was there reminded by a flattering poet that "the condition of God alone was not liable to change."

Sanjar's Defeat by Ghour Khan.

Sanjar afterwards suffered greater misfortunes. The Turkoman tribe of Ghuz had withheld their usual tribute of forty thousand sheep. Sanjar marched against them to force them to make payment, but was defeated and taken prisoner. At first he was treated with respect, but he was soon exposed to every hardship and insult that barbarity could inflict. The savage Turkomans placed him upon a throne during the day, and confined him in an iron cage at night.

Sanjar's Defeat and Capture by Turkomans.

During Sanjar's captivity of four years among the Turkomans, his dominions were ruled by his favorite Sultana, at whose death he made his escape, but died soon after gaining his liberty. The desolate and deplorable condition of his dominions, most of which had been ravaged by the barbarians of Ghuz, preyed on his spirits and plunged him into a melancholy from which he never recovered. The Oriental writers

His Escape and Death.

His Good Character.

passed high eulogiums upon Sanjar, representing him as no less celebrated for his humanity and equity than for his valor and magnificence.

Civil Wars in Persia.

After Sanjar's death, in A. D. 1157, Iran, or Persia, remained distracted for forty years by the wars between the different branches of the Seljuk dynasty. The last to exercise power was Togrul III., who overcame most of his rivals and defeated a conspiracy of his nobles, after which he abandoned himself to every kind of excess. After the

Defeat and Death of Togrul III.

death of Sanjar the ruler of Khorassan became an independent sovereign, and the discontented nobles of Persia invited him to invade their country. He defeated Togrul III., who was slain in the battle, being then intoxicated.

Seljuk Sultans of Kerman.

Thus ended the Seljuk dynasty in Persia, which had reigned from the time of Togrul I. for a period of one hundred and fifty-eight years. A branch of the dynasty, which ruled over the province of Kerman, the ancient Carmania, had assumed the title of Sultan; but they exercised little more than the power of viceroys, and paid or withheld homage according to the strength or weakness of the Sultans of Persia. The Emirs, or governors of cities and provinces, had renounced their allegiance, and exercised sovereign authority under the modest title of

Atta-begs.

Atta-begs, "fathers or guardians of the peace."

Seljuk Kingdom of Khorassan.

Jakush, the sovereign of Khorassan who conquered Togrul III., was a descendant of the monarch of that country who had been the cupbearer to Sultan Sanjar. At his death he bequeathed his kingdom to his son Mohammed, whose reign was splendid and successful at its

Its Conquest by Zingis Khan.

beginning. But Mohammed fell before the great Mongol chieftain, Zingis Khan, who defeated his armies, pillaged his dominions and took most of his family captive. These misfortunes broke Mohammed's heart, and he died on a small island in the Caspian Sea.

Jellal u Deen's Flight and Murder.

His son Jellal u Deen, the last of this dynasty of kings, bore up with exemplary fortitude against the conquering avalanche that had overwhelmed his father, but he finally sunk under the vicissitudes of fortune. He fled before the Mongols, took refuge among the hills of Kurdistan, and was slain by a barbarian whose brother he had put to death (A. D. 1250).

Dissolution of the Seljuk Turkish Empire.

The families of the Turkish generals who had subdued Asia Minor, Syria and Egypt cast off their allegiance to the Seljuk Sultans during the civil wars between the sons of Malek Shah. The most important of the new kingdoms which sprung from the wrecks of the Turkish dominions in Western Asia was that of the Sultans of Iconium, or Roum, in Asia Minor, noted for its connection with the Crusades. The

Iconium, or Roum.

Seljuks of Roum were first brought into notice by Sultan Solyman. Their first capital was Nice, but after the Crusaders took that city Iconium became their seat of government.

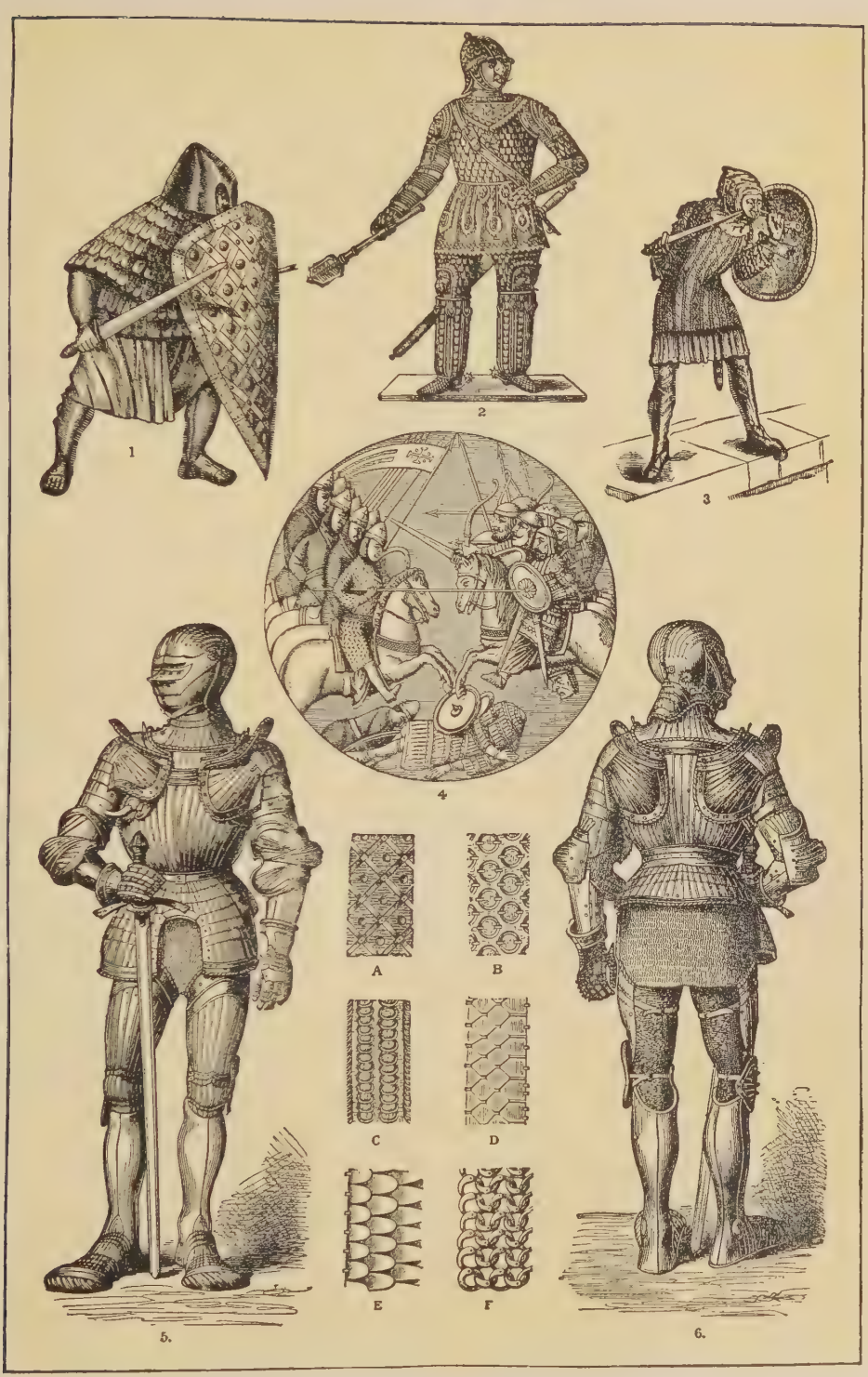
Sultan Saladin of Egypt.

The dynasties of Iconium and Aleppo, which had been brought into contact with the Crusaders, finally both fell before the victorious arms of Sultan Saladin of Egypt. The Khalifs of Bagdad enjoyed a qualified independence, having cast off the Seljuk yoke, and made themselves masters of Irak-Arabi, or the province of Bagdad.

The Bagdad Khalifs.

Results of Seljuk Turkish Conquests.

Such was the history of the once-vast dominion of the Seljuk Turks, whose migration and conquests in the middle of the mediæval period produced such momentous consequences for the future of the human race, giving rise to those great military expeditions of Christendom which, under the name of Crusades, contended for two centuries with the hosts of Islam for the possession of the Holy Land, and which had a great influence in controlling the destinies of Western Asia and greatly modifying the progress of Western civilization and history, contributing immensely to the diffusion of international knowledge and intercourse, and aiding vastly in bringing about the improved civilization of the modern era.



MEDIÆVAL ARMOR

1. Frankish foot-soldier, Eighth century
2. Polish knight, close of Fifteenth century
3. French infantryman, Twelfth century
4. Battle of Ascalon (from a window in the church of St. Louis, Paris)
5, 6. Complete suit of plate armor (German), early Sixteenth century

A, B, C, D, E, F: Details of coats-of-mail

CHAPTER XXIII.

MEDIÆVAL CIVILIZATION.

SECTION I.—THE FEUDAL SYSTEM AND CHIVALRY.

Origin of the Feudal System.

We will now proceed to give an account of the *Feudal System*, or form of government which prevailed throughout Europe during the Middle Ages. The barbarians who overthrew the Western Roman Empire divided the conquered lands among themselves. The chief of each of these tribes of barbarians was called a *king*. Under him were other chiefs or leaders called *barons*. Under each of these barons were still other chiefs, and under each of these last was a large body of people. The military organization was kept up in the conquered countries. The barbarian conquerors devoted themselves entirely to war, leaving the tilling of the soil to the conquered inhabitants, who became slaves or *serfs*. The serfs were bought and sold with the lands on which they lived.

King, Barons and Their Followers.

Serfs, or Slaves.

Castles.

The kings and barons owned large stone castles, to which they retired when attacked by an enemy. All the personal property of the conquered people was divided by lot among the conquerors; but the lands were regarded as the property of the king, not to retain, however, but to grant to his followers. The king kept a portion of the lands for his own use. These were called *crown-lands;* and the king's power depended upon the extent of his private estates. The remainder of the lands was bestowed on his subordinate chiefs, the barons, to be held by them for life. At the death of a chief or baron, his portion of land, called a *feud*, or *fief*, was again taken by the king, who then bestowed it on some other baron. From the term *feud*, the word *feudal* is derived; and by the Feudal System is meant the system based on the feuds or fiefs.

Division of the Land.

Crown-lands.

Feuds, or Fiefs.

Vassals and Lord-Paramount.

Those to whom the king granted fiefs were called *vassals of the crown*, or *liegemen*. The giver of the lands was called a *liege-lord*, or *lord-paramount*, or *suzerain*. The king bestowed the lands on his vassals on condition that they should join him with a certain number of soldiers whenever he should call them to arms. To do this they bound themselves every year by a solemn oath, which was called *swearing*

Swearing Fealty. *fealty*. The king, who was lord-paramount or liege-lord, in return, swore to protect his vassal, and not to continue in arms more than forty days at a time, nor to war against the Church. On the same condition, the vassals of the crown distributed their lands among their followers or vassals. Thus each vassal bestowed fiefs and sub-fiefs on his vassals, each of whom did homage for his lands to his liege-lord. So there were many grades of fiefs and sub-fiefs.

Fiefs made Hereditary. These fiefs, which were at first granted only for life, at length became hereditary in the families of the great vassals of the crown, each of whose estates at his death passed into the possession of his eldest son. In the same manner, great offices and their titles, such as *duke, marquis, count* or *baron*, finally became hereditary also. In this way originated the exclusive privileges yet enjoyed by the nobility of Europe.

Origin of Chivalry. The great oppression and abuses to which the Feudal System gave rise led to the establishment of a remarkable institution throughout Europe about the beginning of the eleventh century. This peculiar institution, called *Chivalry*, originated in the piety of some nobles who wished to give to the profession of arms a religious tendency. These nobles devoted their swords to God, and bound themselves by a solemn oath to use them only in the cause of the weak and the oppressed.

Knights. Those who took upon themselves these vows were called *knights*. Very soon every noble aspired to the honor of being a knight, and the result was that much attention was given to the education of the young, for more than physical power was needed for admission to knighthood.

Knightly Virtues. The aspirant to knighthood was required to be brave, courteous, generous, truthful, obedient, and respectful to his superiors in age or rank, and also to the ladies. The result of the development of these virtuous and noble qualities was that the candidate for knighthood became kind and affable to all who were below him in rank or fortune. The young noble who aspired to knighthood was placed at a very early age under the care of some noble distinguished for his chivalrous qualities, who, in his castle, instructed the young aspirant to knighthood in all the duties of Chivalry.

Ceremonies of Admission to Knighthood. The ceremonies of admission to the order of knighthood were somewhat singular. The candidate was first placed in a bath, to denote that in presenting himself for knighthood he must present himself washed from his sins. When he left the bath he was clothed: first, in a white tunic, to signify the purity of the life he was vowing to lead; then, in a crimson vest, to denote that he was called upon to shed blood; and lastly, in a complete suit of black armor, which was an emblem of death, for which he must always be prepared. He took an oath to speak the truth, to maintain the right, to protect the distressed,

to practice courtesy, to defend the Christian religion, to despise the allurements of ease, and to vindicate the honor of his name.

Knightly Armor and Weapons.

The knight was dressed in a suit of armor which protected his whole person. This armor was sometimes made of mail, that is, links of iron forming a kind of net-work dress, which a sword or a lance could not easily penetrate. Often this armor consisted of plates of iron, which protected the whole body of the knight. The aggressive weapons of a knight were a lance twelve or fifteen feet in length, a large sword, a dagger, and sometimes a battle-ax, or a steel club called a *mace-at-arms*. The knight's war horse, like himself, was protected by a covering of mail or iron plate.

Knights-errant.

Tournaments.

Those knights who traveled about from place to place, independent of each other, were called *knights-errant*. Sometimes a great entertainment, called a *tournament*, was given by some king or rich prince, at which a mock combat was held for the knights to display their skill in the use of arms. A vast number of ladies and gentlemen assembled to witness these friendly trials of skill. At the conclusion of the exercises, the judges, who were usually old knights, declared the victors; and the prizes were presented to the successful knights by the noblest or most beautiful lady present.

Good Effects of Chivalry.

The good effects of the institution of Chivalry were many. While it protected the defenceless and down-trodden in that warlike and barbarous period, the Middle Ages, it contributed much to the final overthrow of feudalism and the revival of European civilization, which had disappeared with the fall of the Western Roman Empire. Commerce increased, talent and invention received encouragement, the arts and the sciences began to flourish, and many new towns were built and peopled.

SECTION II.—THE PAPACY, HIERARCHY AND MONACHISM.

The Papal Power.

The Pope, or head of the Church, assumed command or authority over all the princes and kingdoms of Christendom. He regarded the Empire of Germany and all other Christian kingdoms as papal fiefs. From the eleventh to the sixteenth century the papal power was at its height. During that period the power of the Pope was so great that the most powerful monarch of Europe could be subjected to the greatest humiliation by His Holiness. The most powerful, the most illustrious, and the ablest of the Popes, and the one who raised the papacy above every other power in Christendom, was Gregory VII. (Hildebrand),

Hildebrand.

who compelled Henry IV., King of Germany, to come to Italy and stand

three days and three nights barefooted and bareheaded, without tasting a mouthful of food.

Interdict and Excommunication.

The two punishments by the influence of which the Pope endeavored to maintain his authority were the *interdict* and the *excommunication*. The papal punishment by the interdict was forbidding or interdicting divine service to be publicly performed. When a nation was under an interdict, the churches were all closed, the bells were not rung, the dead were thrown into ditches and holes without any funeral ceremonies, diversions of all sorts were forbidden, and everything presented an appearance of gloom and mourning. An interdict was leveled at a village, a city, a state, or a nation; but an excommunication was directed against individuals. A person excommunicated by the Pope was regarded as unholy and polluted; and every person was forbidden to come near him or render him any friendly assistance. If the sentence of excommunication could be enforced, as in most cases it could, the proudest and most powerful monarch could become, by a single decree of the Holy See, a miserable outcast.

Power and Influence of the Clergy.

The power and influence of the clergy during the Middle Ages was almost as great and important as was that of the nobles and the princes. Besides their ecclesiastical dignities, the superior clergy often held the most important offices of state; and by degrees great numbers of the archbishops, bishops and abbots acquired extensive possessions, so that they finally became as powerful and influential as most of the princes. The magnificent cathedrals and abbeys, adorned with all the productions of art, fully attested the greatness of the ecclesiastical residences.

Monachism, or Monasticism.

Monachism, or *Monasticism*, had its birthplace in the East, where a life of solitude and devotion to the contemplation of divine subjects was by degrees adopted by so many that about the close of the third century of the Christian era the Egyptian Antonius, who had divested himself of all his vast possessions and selected the desert for his residence, collected the hitherto scattered *monks*, or *monachi*, as they were called, into enclosed places styled *monasteries*, *abbeys*, *cloisters* or *convents*. In these monasteries the monks lived together in fellowship; and Pachomius, the disciple of Antonius, gave the fraternity a rule.

Benedictines, Augustinians and Other Monastic Orders.

Monasticism soon extended into Western Europe. In the sixth century, Benedict of Nursia established a monastery on Mount Casino, in Southern Italy, and thus became the founder of the famous order of *Benedictine* monks, which rapidly spread into all European countries and built many cloisters. Numerous orders of monks arose in the course of time, among which were the *Augustinians*, so called from the famous St. Augustine. Other noted monastic orders were the *Cistercians*, the *Premonstrants* and the *Carthusians*.

Noted Monasteries.

The most noted among the monasteries were those of the Benedictines at St. Gallen, Fulda, Reichenau and Corvey, in Westphalia, and many others. There were three famous monasteries in Burgundy—the reformed Benedictine monastery of Clugny, with over two thousand cloisters; the Cistercian monastery of Citeaux, and the monastery of Clairvaux, of which the renowned St. Bernard was the Abbot. Other noted monasteries were that of the Premonstrants near Laon, in Champagne, and that of the Carthusians near Grenoble, in Dauphiny.

Franciscans and Dominicans.

Two celebrated monkish orders arose in the thirteenth century—the *Franciscans* and the *Dominicans*. The order of Franciscans was founded by the pious Francis of Assisi, a wealthy merchant's son, who, in 1226, renounced all his possessions, clothed himself in rags, and went from place to place, begging and preaching the gospel. His wonderful zeal for the salvation of souls made for him many disciples, who, following his example, renounced their worldly possessions, fasted, prayed, and supported themselves by alms and donations. The order of Franciscans became widespread throughout Europe. About the same time arose the order of Dominicans, founded by the learned Spaniard, Dominicus. The chief aim of the Dominican monks was the extinction of all heretical doctrines and the preservation of the predominant faith in its original purity. The Dominicans took a vow of absolute poverty, and sought to gain heaven by austerity of manner and by a strict religious devotion. The court of the *Inquisition*, with all its horrible examinations, dungeons and tortures, was assigned to the Dominicans for the extermination of heretics, as all who differed with the established Church were called. The Franciscan monks, who mingled with the people, were chiefly engaged in the salvation of souls; while the Dominicans, who gave their attention to the sciences, filled, by degrees, the chairs of the European universities.

Monastic Vows.

All monks were obliged to take the three vows of celibacy, personal poverty, and obedience. Females who took upon themselves the obligations of Monachism were called *nuns*, and their cloisters or convents were styled *nunneries*. The monastic orders were the strongest support of the power of the Pope, who endowed them with privileges and removed them from the authority of the bishops.

Good Effects of Monachism.

Monachism proved a blessing to humanity during the dark and barbarous period of the Middle Ages. It preserved the remains of ancient civilization, afforded an asylum or place of refuge for the down-trodden and the oppressed, and diffused morality and intellectual enlightenment and softened the rude manners of those benighted times by the preaching of the gospel and by the establishment of schools for education.

SECTION III.—MEDIÆVAL LEARNING AND LITERATURE.

Mediæval Ignorance and Barbarism.

During the whole mediæval period of a thousand years—known also as the Middle Ages—Europe, under feudalism, was slumbering in the darkness of barbarism, ignorance and superstition. All the learning was in the possession of the clergy, and most of them were able only to read their prayer-books and write their names. During the Dark Ages, kings and nobles were unable to write their own names.

Saracen Learning.

The first half of the mediæval period is known as the *Dark Ages.* The Saracens, or Arabians, were then leaders in learning and the arts.

Achmet, Geber and Avicenna.

The great names among the Arabians of this period were Achmet, the astronomer; Geber, the chemist; and Avicenna (980–1037), the eminent physician and philosopher.

Firdusi.

Firdusi, a renowned Persian poet, flourished early in the eleventh century.

Bede and Alcuin.

Two illustrious names appear among the Anglo-Saxons of Britain in the eighth century—"The Venerable" Bede (672–735), the church historian, and Alcuin (725–804), a famous scholar, the tutor of Charlemagne.

European Universities.

The great seats of learning in Europe, during the Middle Ages, were the famous universities of Oxford, in England; Paris, in France; Bologna, in Italy; and the Moorish university of Cordova, in Spain. These were attended by thousands of students from different parts of Europe. The students and professors mostly begged their way, as poverty was considered no disgrace when it was endured for the sake of learning. Latin was the universal language of the learned, all over Christian Europe. Other famous schools arose at Cambridge, in England; Prague, in Bohemia; Toulouse and Montpelier, in the South of France; Padua, in Italy; and Salamanca, in Spain.

Abelard.

The great French philosopher, Abelard (1079–1142)—who flourished in the first part of the twelfth century—is regarded as the

Schoolmen.

founder of the Scholastic philosophy. The *Schoolmen* were those philosophical writers who devoted themselves to subtle points of theology and metaphysics.

Thomas Aquinas and Duns Scotus.

The most eminent of the Schoolmen were the Italian Dominican monk, Thomas Aquinas (1224–1274), "the Angelic Doctor," and the Scottish Franciscan monk, Duns Scotus (1265–1308), "the Subtle Doctor"—both of whom flourished in the thirteenth century, and who were the founders respectively of the *Thomists* and the *Scotists.*

Anselm and Peter Lombard.

Other famous schoolmen were Anselm (1033–1108), Archbishop of Canterbury, and Peter Lombard (1100–1160), an Italian monk.

Roger Bacon and Albertus Magnus.

The English monk, Roger Bacon (1214–1294), "the Admirable Doctor," and the Italian Monk, Albertus Magnus (1193–1280)—both of whom flourished in the thirteenth century—were Schoolmen celebrated for their investigations in physical science, and both were

The Mystics.

punished as magicians. The *Mystics* sought to build up a religion of feeling, of poetry and of imagination, in opposition to the system of the Schoolmen, who sought to blend science with revelation. The most renowned of the Mystics was Thomas à Kempis (1380–1471), who was born in Germany, but flourished in France during the fifteenth century—the closing period of the Middle Ages—and whose great work, *Imitatione Christi*, "Imitation of Christ," has been translated into all languages.

Thomas à Kempis.

Origin of Modern Languages.

The Northern and Eastern nations of Europe kept their own languages. The mingling of the Northern barbarian conquerors with the Celtic and Latin races of Southern and Western Europe gave rise to the modern French, Italian, Spanish and Portuguese. The blending of Norman-French with the Anglo-Saxon, or Old English, gave us the modern English.

Mediæval Italian Literature.

In Italian literature we find three illustrious names, all of whom flourished at Florence—"the Athens of the Middle Ages"—in the fourteenth century. The first and greatest of these was the renowned dramatic poet, Dante (1265–1321), who, in his *Divine Comedy*, describes his visions of Hell, Purgatory and Paradise. The next was Petrarch (1304–1374), also a great dramatic poet, famous for his *Odes to Laura*. The third was Petrarch's cotemporary, Boccaccio (1313–1375), the great novelist, who, by his novels and tales, became the creator of Italian prose, his great work being *Decameron*. Petrarch and Boccaccio were mainly instrumental in restoring ancient literature.

Dante, Petrarch and Boccaccio.

Rise of English Literature.

English literature arose in the time of King Edward III., in the fourteenth century. The *Travels* of Sir John Mandeville (1300–1372) were the earliest English prose. Geoffrey Chaucer (1328–1400)—"the Father of English Poetry"—wrote *Canterbury Tales*. John Gower (1320–1402)—called "Moral Gower"—was another great English poet; as was also William Langland (1332–1400), the author of *Piers Plowman*. John Wycliffe (1324–1384)—the great Oxford professor, divine and reformer—made the first English translation of the Bible.

Chaucer, Gower, Langland and Wycliffe.

Froissart and Comines.

Two great French historians flourished during the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries—Froissart (1337–1410) and Comines (1445–1509). Lyric poetry was cultivated by the *Minnesingers* in Germany, and by the *Troubadours* in the South of France. The great German epic poem of the *Nibelungen Lied;* the Spanish poem of the *Cid*, who fell in the war against the Moors in 1099; and the British poem of *King Arthur and the Knights of the Round Table*, were the most famous productions of mediæval heroic poetry. The mediæval architecture displayed itself mostly in magnificent cathedrals in the Gothic style, which still remain as monuments of the Middle Ages.

Minnesingers and Troubadours.

Noted Poems.

Cathedrals.

SECTION IV.—TOWNS, COMMERCE AND SOCIAL LIFE.

Rise of German and Italian Cities and Towns.

Toward the close of the eleventh century all the European nations gradually grew more wealthy and powerful. The towns emerged into importance. Cities are always the centers of civilization. As civilization advanced new towns arose, especially in Germany and Italy, and the old towns recovered their ancient greatness. The real importance

Hanseatic League.

of the German towns began with the *Hanseatic League*, which was of the greatest importance to commerce and freedom. The Hanseatic League, comprising seventy cities and towns, maintained powerful fleets and defended commerce in the Northern seas against piracy. In Italy the Lombard cities arose to greatness, and finally threw off the nominal

Italian Republics.

yoke of the German Emperor. The great Italian republics of Venice, Genoa, Pisa and Florence engrossed the commerce of the Mediterranean and the East.

Industry and Commerce.

The growth of towns gave rise to various industries, and trade and commerce began to flourish. The woolen manufacture of Flanders was among the earliest industries. This had become important in the

Flemish Woolen Manufacture.

twelfth century, and "Flemish stuffs" were sold in distant lands. Ghent and Bruges were the chief seats of this industry. The weavers of these cities were noted for their democratic spirit. In England, for

English Commerce.

two centuries after the Norman Conquest, the export of wool, the great staple of that country, was the only commerce. But in the fourteenth century, King Edward III., the father of English commerce, brought Flemish artisans to England, and thus introduced the finer manufacture of woolen cloths. From that period England increased in wealth, and a merchant's occupation became honorable.

Commerce of Southern Europe.

The commerce of the South of Europe was conducted by the republics of Venice, Genoa and Pisa. The Crusades increased the wealth and extended the commerce of these Italian city-republics. The towns of Marseilles, Nismes and Montpelier, in Southern France, and Barcelona, in Spain, had a flourishing commerce. The introduction of the

Silk Manufacture.

silk manufacture at Palermo, in Sicily, in 1148, was the beginning of manufacturing industry in Italy. Silk soon became a staple manufacture of the towns of Lombardy and Tuscany, and their laws enforced the cultivation of mulberries. The silk manufacture soon spread into Southern France and into Catalonia, in Spain.

Rise of Banking.

The growth of commerce, in the course of time, led to the establishment of moneyed institutions. Most nations in the Middle Ages treated the lending of money for profit as a crime. This trade was at first entirely conducted by the Jews, who were long subjected to cruel persecution, being maltreated and swindled to a shameful extent. In the

thirteenth century the merchants of Lombardy and Southern France took up the trade in money by beginning the business of remitting money on bills of exchange and of making profits on loans. The "Lombard usurers," in spite of much prejudice, established themselves in all the leading commercial centers of Europe. As the practical utility of this business was soon recognized, this ancient prejudice gradually died away. The earliest bank of deposit is said to have been that of Barcelona, in Spain, founded in 1401. The bank of Genoa was established in 1407, and soon became a great power.

The Jewish Bankers and the "Lombard Usurers."

The growing wealth of Europe led to the diffusion of comforts and luxuries among the people. Dwelling-houses were improved. Chimneys and window-glasses first came into use in the fourteenth century. Fantastic fashions prevailed. Long-toed shoes came into general use. The toes of these were so long that they had to be fastened to the knees with gold chains. Ignorance and superstition was the rule. Books were few and high-priced. Implicit faith was placed in stories of giants and magicians, dragons and enchanted palaces. In the short intervals of peace in the Middle Ages, hunting and hawking were favorite amusements. Even the clergy were very fond of field-sports.

Comforts, Luxuries, Customs, Etc.

Ignorance and Superstition.

Amusements.

The productive classes of mediæval times were the peasantry of the country who tilled the soil and the artisans of the cities and towns. The peasantry were mainly serfs, without political rights; but the inhabitants of the cities and towns, known as *citizens* and *burghers*, enjoyed municipal political privileges. In Germany these cities and towns were either *imperial cities and towns*, which were under the Emperor's control and were represented in the Imperial Diet, or *provincial cities and towns*, which belonged to the territorial prince. The imperial cities and towns were the more ancient and the wealthier and more powerful, and were the municipalities in which the mediæval town policy was developed. The inhabitants originally consisted of free patrician families, as in ancient Rome, and a tributary and dependent class engaged in trade and agriculture, who, as tenants, possessed no political privileges. The Mayor or Burgomaster of the city or town was chosen from the privileged patrician class. In the course of time the dependent disfranchised class gained the ascendency over the patrician families and organized themselves into guilds, or corporations, thus acquiring such additional power that they finally obtained the rights of citizenship and a share of municipal political power, in many towns even acquiring the political supremacy over the patrician class. The guilds marched into the field with their own banners, under the leadership of their guild-master, and stoutly defended their rights and liberties.

Peasantry and Artisans.

Citizens and Burghers.

Imperial and Provincial Cities and Towns.

Guilds.

COLOGNE CATHEDRAL

From a Photograph

CHAPTER XXIV.

THE CRUSADES.

SECTION I.—THE FIRST CRUSADE.

Delusion as to the Year A. D. 1000.

As the year A. D. 1000 approached, all Christendom was afflicted with a singular superstition, and was plunged into the wildest excitement and terror. There prevailed throughout all Christian countries a belief that the year above mentioned was to see the end of the world. This belief arose from a misinterpretation of a passage in the Book of Revelations (chap. xx. 1–7). Such universal dread was everywhere prevalent throughout Christendom that the churches were thronged with penitents; and as the church edifices were not sufficiently capacious to accommodate the enormous multitudes which sought admission, the old edifices were enlarged and new ones were erected. Wealth and privileges of every kind were bestowed upon the Church, and particularly upon the various monastic orders, in the hope of obtaining pardon for past sins and admission into a future state of happiness. The Church profited greatly from this condition of public feeling, which expressed itself in extensive building, and in a few years Europe was covered with magnificent and commodious church edifices and abbeys, whose erection was commenced during or immediately after this great period of universal terror. When the first day of the 1001 dawned bright and clear, thus showing people their unwarrantable error, Christendom breathed freely and again planned for the future. The neglect of agriculture the previous year, on account of the general fear of the last day, produced a dreadful famine the next year.

Result of the Mistaken Fear.

The upheaval of the Christian world as a result of the above-mentioned superstition was too deep to allay the profound feeling thereby created, and men's energies were directed into new channels. A remarkable architectural revival began, and there were other important results. An impulse was given to men's long-pent-up thoughts, in all directions of investigation, by the sun's rising on the first day of the

eleventh century. Men commenced exchanging the old unquestioning beliefs of the past for habits of thought and investigation, and the human mind, thus awakened, entered upon that spirit of progress which has brought about our modern civilization. Though the progress thus far made at the time was slow, it was nevertheless a beginning.

Christian Pilgrimages to the Holy Sepulcher.

From the time of the triumph of Christianity over the paganism of the Roman world in the fourth century, it had been a custom among the people of Christian Europe to make pilgrimages to Jerusalem for the purpose of expiating a sinful life, praying at the Holy Sepulcher, and exhibiting gratitude for heavenly mercies. As long as Syria and Palestine formed a part of the Byzantine, Greek, or Eastern Roman Empire, access to the Holy City was secured to these pilgrims. While the Holy Land remained under the enlightened dominion of the Saracens, or Arabians, the Christian pilgrim was also unmolested in his journey to and from the Holy Sepulcher.

First Idea of a Crusade.

When Jerusalem had been captured and the Holy Sepulcher profaned by Hakem, the mad Fatimite Khalif of Egypt, early in the eleventh century, a thrill of indignation spread throughout Europe, giving rise to the idea of delivering the Holy City from the rule of Islam, and such an effort would have been made had it not been for the fact that the Saracen Khalifs of Bagdad had treated the Christian holy places with respect and protected and encouraged the Christian pilgrims, as the visits of these strangers occasioned a profitable trade for the Moslems.

Turkish Outrages upon the Pilgrims.

When the Seljuk Turks, a race of fierce barbarians from the plains of Tartary, took Jerusalem in 1076, and obtained full possession of the Holy Land in 1094, the native Christians and the pilgrims from Europe were ill-treated, and many of them became martyrs to their religion. Those who returned to Europe from their pilgrimages gave a melancholy account of the cruelties and oppressions suffered by the Christians in Palestine at the hands of the Moslem Turks, and thus excited the greatest indignation in Christian Europe.

Scheme of Pope Gregory VII.

Pope Gregory VII.—Hildebrand—meditated a project for uniting Christendom against Islam and liberating Palestine from Mussulman dominion, but he was too much engrossed in his struggle with the Emperor Henry IV. to devote much time and attention to the deliverance of the Holy Land from Moslem rule. In the meantime the hardships of the Christian pilgrims to the Saviour's shrine increased year by year, but despite this fact the number of pilgrimages increased with the progress of time.

Peter the Hermit's Preaching.

Among others who had been witnesses of the cruelties and oppressions suffered by the Christians in Palestine was the zealous and fanatical monk, Peter the Hermit, of Amiens, in the French province of Picardy.

On his return to Europe from a pilgrimage to the Holy Land, Peter the Hermit resolved to arouse the Christian nations of Europe to a gigantic effort to wrest the Holy Land from the hands of the Moslems. Peter went from town to town, and from castle to castle, preaching of the duty of Christian Europe to expel the barbarian Turks from the Holy City. Wherever he went, numerous crowds assembled to hear him; and very soon all France and Italy were aroused to the wildest enthusiasm for an expedition against the Moslem desecrators of the shrine of the Saviour.

Appeal of the Greek Patriarch of Jerusalem.

Peter the Hermit had brought with him, on his return from the East, letters from the Greek Patriarch of Jerusalem to Pope Urban II., appealing to the Roman Pontiff and to all Christendom to deliver the Christians of Palestine and the Holy Sepulcher from the tyrannical Turks. The Pope, sustained by Bohemond, Prince of Taranto, the son of Robert Guiscard, gave a favorable response to the Patriarch's appeal; seeing also in the proposed holy war a good opportunity of establishing his authority over that of his rival, Pope Clement II., who had been set up by the Germano-Roman Emperor; while Prince Bohemond desired to gain wealth and power for himself and his followers by the conquest of Palestine.

Appeal of the Greek Emperor Alexis.

The appeal of the Greek Emperor Alexis through his Legate, urging the princes of Europe to arm for the defense of the last Christian stronghold in Asia, also influenced the Pope, who formally presented the matter before the Church Councils of Piacenza and Clermont.

Pope Urban II. and the Council of Clermont.

Pope Urban II., who zealously abetted the design for an expedition for the redemption of the Holy Land, assembled a Council of the Church at Clermont, in Southern France. This Council was attended by numerous bishops and an immense concourse of people. When the Pope, addressing the clergy and the multitude, said, "It is the duty of every one to deny himself and take up the cross, that he may win Christ," there arose a simultaneous shout, "It is the will of God!" and great numbers demanded to be enlisted in the sacred army. As the symbol of enlistment in the cause of God was a red cross to be worn on the right shoulder, the expedition was called a *Crusade*, and those who engaged in it were called *Crusaders*. All who engaged in the enterprise received from the Church the promise of a remission of sins and assurance of eternal heavenly reward for their efforts after death.

Crusade and Crusaders.

Popular Enthusiasm for the Holy War.

Thousands of all ranks and ages in every portion of Europe took the vow to fight for the deliverance of the Holy Sepulcher, and bound the red cross to their shoulders in token of their pledge. Private quarrels were well-nigh forgotten, and noble and peasant resolved to join in the war for the rescue of Christ's tomb from its Moslem desecrators. Even monks laid aside their rosaries and took up the sword. Nobles sold or

mortgaged their castles and lands to obtain the means for equipping themselves and their vassals and defraying their share of the expenses of the holy war. Serfs were liberated on condition of taking up the cross, and even robbers and pirates relinquished their nefarious occupation and joined in the holy struggle in the hope of expiating a sinful life by their deeds in the Holy Land. The Jews, whom the Christians considered their natural enemies, were subjected to persecution and cruelty. They were wantonly massacred in the cities along the Rhine, so that the Emperor Henry IV. was obliged to take them under his special protection, to secure them "the poor right to live."

Cruel Persecution of Jews.

Crusaders under Peter the Hermit and Walter the Penniless.

The historians of those times tell us that altogether six million persons —men, women and children—took up the cross for the First Crusade. The enthusiasm for the Crusade was so great throughout Europe that many became impatient at what they considered the slowness of the preparations of princes; and accordingly on August 15, 1096, numerous bands, consisting of sixty thousand of the lowest classes of society, set out from the frontiers of France for the Holy Land, without order or discipline, led by a French knight called "Walter the Penniless." Soon afterward Peter the Hermit led forty thousand more; and a little later another band of two hundred thousand, without any definite leader, set out for the Holy Land. These bands proceeded through Germany and Hungary toward Constantinople, but very few of them ever reached Asia. Besides having no discipline or competent leaders, these disorderly bands had no food or supplies of any kind, expecting their wants to be supplied in a miraculous or supernatural manner from Heaven, and when they discovered their mistake they sought to draw their subsistence from the regions which they traversed. Having attempted to obtain the necessaries of life from the countries through which they passed, and having carried robbery and desolation through Bulgaria and stormed Belgrade, the inhabitants of Hungary, Servia and Bulgaria rose against them and destroyed nearly the entire band of Crusaders; and Peter the Hermit and Walter the Penniless had very few followers when they reached Constantinople, where they waited to join the great army of the First Crusade under Godfrey of Bouillon.

Other Disorderly Bands.

Other disorderly and undisciplined bands, which violently persecuted and even murdered Jews and others who rejected Christ, followed those of Peter the Hermit and Walter the Penniless; but they were totally destroyed before they reached Constantinople by the people whom they had robbed and plundered.

Fate of These First Bands.

Still these first bands of Crusaders were sufficiently numerous to cause some anxiety to the Greek Emperor Alexis, who received them kindly but hurried them on their journey to the Holy Land. They showed their gratitude for his kindness by perpetrating numerous outrages in

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ANCIENT CITADEL AT SIDON

and about Constantinople, but finally he had the satisfaction of seeing them all safe beyond the Bosphorus. Ignorant of the route to Palestine, they wandered recklessly through Asia Minor, and were annihilated on the plain of Nice by the Turkish Sultan of Roum. The scene of their destruction was marked for years by a pyramid of bones.

The Great Armies of the First Crusade.

Nearly three hundred thousand Crusaders had already perished when Godfrey of Bouillon, Duke of Lower Lorraine, and his lieutenants led a powerful and disciplined host in four divisions toward the Holy Land. The first army, under the leadership of Godfrey of Bouillon, comprised the chivalry of Lorraine and of North-eastern France, and marched through Germany, Hungary and Bulgaria to Constantinople. Count Raymond of Toulouse, the most powerful prince of Southern France, led a second army through Lombardy to the head of the Adriatic sea, and thence through Dalmatia and Slavonia to Constantinople. Prince Bohemond, son of Robert Guiscard, the Norman prince of Southern Italy, with the third army, crossed the Adriatic, and thence marched to Constantinople. Count Hugh of Vermandois, brother of King Philip I. of France; Duke Robert the Devil of Normandy, son of King William the Conqueror of England; Earl Robert of Flanders; and Count Stephen of Blois, father of King Stephen of England, led the fourth army, marching through Italy, and receiving the Pope's blessing on the way. These Crusading armies neglected to secure the means of transportation, and thus arrived at Constantinople in a greatly demoralized condition, nine months after the appointed time.

The Crusaders at Constantinople.

The Emperor Alexis was astonished and alarmed at the arrival of such immense armies, as he had not expected such a response to his appeal for aid. He adroitly frustrated the combination of any two of the Crusading armies before Constantinople, and hurried them over the Bosphorus into Bithynia, where, in the spring of 1097, they were assembled to the number of one hundred thousand fighting men and thousands of pilgrims and camp followers. Some writers give the entire number of this host of Crusaders as six hundred thousand—fighting men, pilgrims, camp followers and all.

Capture of Nice.

The Crusaders captured Nice, the capital of the Turkish kingdom of Roum, or Iconium, June 20, 1097, after a vigorous siege, the Greek Emperor Alexis adroitly claiming and securing this city as a possession of the Eastern Emperor. The Crusaders then marched into Phrygia and defeated the Turks in the battle of Dorylæum, on the 4th of July, 1097. Tancred and Baldwin, the latter the brother of Godfrey of Bouillon, were sent forward with the cavalry. Tancred took Tarsus, which Baldwin afterwards wanted to pillage, in violation of the pledge which Tancred had given to the inhabitants. The two leaders quarreled, and Tancred was sustained by the other leading command-

Battle of Dorylæum.

Baldwin's Conquests.

ers, whereupon Baldwin withdrew his followers in disgust, and went to the aid of the Greek tyrant of Edessa, who had been allowed to reign as a tributary of the Turks. This tyrant adopted Baldwin as his son, but Baldwin, upon entering the city, put his adoptive father to death and seized the throne of Edessa for himself. Baldwin conquered and annexed parts of Armenia and Mesopotamia, thus erecting the first Christian kingdom in Asia.

Siege and Capture of Antioch.

Proceeding in their victorious career, the Crusaders next laid siege to Antioch. On June 28, 1098, after a siege of seven months, the city was taken by a stratagem of Prince Bohemond and the treachery of one of the Turks, who left a gate open to the besieging Crusaders. The citadel held out, but was forced to surrender. The victorious Crusaders had succeeded by valiant force in making a great step toward the ultimate goal, Jerusalem.

Great Christian Victory at Antioch.

A few days after the Crusaders had taken Antioch, an army of three hundred thousand Turks and Persians appeared before that city. The finding of a "holy lance" in the Church of St. Peter raised the courage of the Christians, who sallied out of the city, and, after a desperate battle, totally defeated the Moslems and forced them to a precipitate flight, June 30, 1098.

The Crusaders in Palestine.

The Fatimite Khalif of Egypt took advantage of this Turkish defeat to get Jerusalem and all Palestine in his possession. He sought to open friendly negotiations with the Crusaders, who sternly replied that they recognized no difference between Turk and Saracen, and that any Moslem claiming the sovereignty of Jerusalem was their foe. They occupied Northern and Central Palestine on their march, in the summer of 1099, only forty thousand Crusaders remaining, over eight hundred thousand having died of wounds, disease, hunger and dissipation.

Siege and Capture of Jerusalem by the Crusaders.

Onward the Crusaders proceeded. When they came in sight of Jerusalem they shouted and wept for joy, and fell down on their knees and offered thanks to God; but their joy was succeeded by rage at beholding the Holy City in the possession of the Mohammedans. The Crusaders therefore laid siege to the city, which they finally took by storm, July 15, 1099, after a siege of about forty days. The streets of the captured city were soon filled with the bodies of seventy thousand

Massacre of Jews and Moslems.

slaughtered Mohammedans. The conquering Christians believed that they were doing God good service by slaughtering those who rejected the Saviour; and both Jews and Mohammedans were massacred. After this bloody conquest, the Crusaders proceeded with hymns of praise to the Hill of Calvary, and kissed the stone which had covered the body of the Saviour; and then offered thanks to the God of Peace for the signal success of their undertaking.

Founding of the Christian Kingdom of Jerusalem.

After the capture of the Holy City the Crusaders established the Christian Kingdom of Jerusalem, which lasted nearly a century. Their gallant leader, Godfrey of Bouillon, was made ruler of the new state. He was too pious to assume the title of "King"; but called himself "Defender of the Holy Sepulcher," and wore a crown of thorns instead of one of gold. Godfrey gained a great victory over the Sultan of Egypt, at Ascalon, in August, 1099. He died in the following year (A. D. 1100), and was succeeded at the head of the new state by his heroic brother Baldwin.

King Godfrey of Bouillon.

Situation of the New Kingdom.

After the establishment of the Kingdom of Jerusalem, most of the Crusaders, considering their vow accomplished in the rescuing of the Holy Sepulcher, returned to Europe, leaving Godfrey of Bouillon with only three hundred knights and two thousand infantry to defend his newly-founded kingdom, and his position was one of great danger as well as of honor. The new kingdom consisted only of Jerusalem, Joppa, and about twenty towns and villages of the surrounding country, while the Saracens still held some impregnable castles in this region.

Its Character.

The Christian Kingdom of Jerusalem was a peculiar state. Its language, laws and customs were French. Its frontiers were extended eastward to the Euphrates and southward to the borders of Egypt by successive conquests. The kingdom was divided into four great feudal baronies—Tripoli, Galilee, Cæsarea and Nazareth, and Jaffa and Ascalon. Of all their conquests in Syria, the Moslems retained only Ems, Hamath, Aleppo and Damascus. The entire military force of the kingdom numbered eleven thousand men.

Two New Knightly Orders.

The situation of the Christian Kingdom of Jerusalem, surrounded by vast hordes of Mussulmans, was always one of extreme peril. Fortunately there soon were founded at Jerusalem two celebrated orders of knighthood which proved themselves to be the bulwark of the new kingdom, and the renown of their valiant exploits against the Moslems reached Europe. These two famous knightly orders were the Knights of St. John, or Hospitallers, and the Knights Templars, or Red Cross Knights.

Knights of St. John.

The Knights of St. John were founded in 1121, when the monks of St. John, who had thus far devoted themselves to religious duties and care for the sick, adopted a new vow binding them to defend the Holy Sepulcher. They at once took the name of the "Knights of St. John of Jerusalem," and were more generally known by their other name, Knights Hospitallers. Nobles and princes from all over Europe came to Jerusalem to add their names to the new order, and in a short time over twenty-eight thousand farms and manors were granted to the order in different portions of Europe, thus enabling them to maintain a regular force of cavalry and infantry for the defense of the Holy Land.

Knights Templars.

The Knights Templars, or Knights of the Temple, were so called because they were granted as quarters a building within the Temple enclosure. They commenced their career in a very humble way, but the fame won for them by their brilliant heroism brought them recruits from the noblest families of Europe, and they grew rapidly in numbers and wealth. Valuable possessions were conferred upon them in every European country, and soon they became the most formidable military order in Christendom.

Final Degeneracy of These Orders.

Both these orders finally became corrupted by prosperity, and their pride, avarice and corruption became the scandal of Christendom. Their claims of immunity and jurisdiction distracted church and state, and their jealous emulation imperiled the public peace. But even in their most degenerate period these two knightly orders preserved their fearless and energetic character. Though they at times failed to live in the service of Christ, they were ready to die in His service.

SECTION II.—SECOND AND THIRD CRUSADES.

Christian Losses in Palestine.

The Christian Kingdom of Jerusalem suffered many attacks from the Moslems, and some of the principal Christian fortresses in Palestine were lost. Near the middle of the twelfth century the Turks began to recover from their weakness more especially and to regain their lost ground. In 1146 they took Edessa after a siege of twenty-five days, and won from the Christians all their conquests beyond the Euphrates. Thus the eastern frontier of Palestine was exposed to Mussulman attacks, and all Christendom entertained grave fears for the safety of the Christian Kingdom of Jerusalem.

Second Crusade.

Under these circumstances Christian Europe undertook the Second Crusade. The pious and eloquent St. Bernard, Abbot of Clairvaux, in Burgundy, preached the cross in France and Germany, A. D. 1147. All ranks and classes in those countries assumed the cross with enthusiasm, and immense numbers left their homes to engage in the Crusade. More than half a million fighting men, besides vast numbers of camp followers, women and children, monks, etc., composed the armies which left Europe for Palestine.

St. Bernard's Preaching.

Popular Enthusiasm.

Powerful Expeditions.

The powerful expeditions which set out for the Holy Land were led by Conrad III., King of Germany, and Louis VII., King of France, while the Kings of Poland and Bohemia also took the field. The German army under Conrad III. marched by way of Constantinople into Asia Minor. The Eastern Emperor, Manuel Comnenus, viewed the approach of this immense host of Crusaders with the utmost alarm, and secretly resolved to destroy the vast host, or at least to discourage the

pilgrims by every kind of injury and oppression. The Crusading monarchs had arranged for a safe passage and a fair market in the dominions of the Eastern Emperor, who, however, violated every engagement by treachery and injustice; and, instead of receiving the hospitable reception they had a right to look for, the German Crusaders found the gates of all Byzantine cities in Europe and Asia closed against their entrance. The bare pittance of food was let down from the walls in baskets, and the bread was poisoned by a mixture of chalk and other noxious ingredients. The Crusaders were halted or misled in every step of their march. The governors had secret orders to fortify the passes and break down the bridges against them. The stragglers were pillaged and murdered. The soldiers and horses were pierced in the woods by arrows from invisible hands. The sick were burned in their beds, and the corpses were hung on gibbets along the highways. Their injuries enraged the Crusaders against the Greek princes who had dealt so extremely treacherously toward them. The Germans crossed the Bosphorus first, without waiting for their French allies. King Conrad III. led one-half of the German forces toward Iconium, while Bishop Otto of Freysingen conducted the other half along the route to Ephesus. Conrad was treacherously misled by the Greek guides into the mountains of Cappadocia, then occupied by the Turks; and, finding himself hemmed in on all sides, he was obliged to make a disastrous retreat, in which he lost most of his troops, the division under Bishop Otto encountering the same fate. The Turkish cavalry completely annihilated the army of German Crusaders, only a tenth part of whom succeeded in escaping to Constantinople.

Destruction of the German Expedition under King Conrad III.

The French army, led by King Louis VII., marched along the coast, taking the route by way of Philade'phia and Smyrna, but scarcity of provisions forced him to diverge to Ephesus, where the German king, who had accompanied him, left him and returned to Constantinople, where he borrowed some Greek ships and made the journey to the Holy Land by sea. The French king continued his advance and won a victory over the Turks while crossing the Meander, but was afterwards surprised and defeated by the Turks in a narrow mountain pass between Phrygia and Pisidia, and only succeeded in effecting his retreat to the friendly seaport of Satalia with the greatest difficulty. There only a sufficient number of vessels for the king and his knights could be procured, and in these ships they sailed to Palestine, leaving their force of infantry to perish at the foot of the hills of Pamphylia. Thus the greater portion of the French forces also perished from famine and fatigue, and by the swords of the Moslems, before reaching Jerusalem. The shattered remnants of the immense hosts of French and Germans, led by the two sovereigns, after meeting at Jerusalem, engaged in an

Destruction of the French Expedition under King Louis VII.

Unsuccessful Siege of Damascus.

unsuccessful siege of Damascus, which was the end of the Second Crusade, the two kings returning home.

Rise of Sultan Saladin of Egypt and Syria.

The situation of the Christian Kingdom of Jerusalem became more and more perilous after the Second Crusade, and it owed its long continued existence only to the enmity existing between the Turks and the Saracens during this period. In A. D. 1171 the Fatimite Khalif of Egypt was dethroned by the lieutenant of Noureddin, the Turkish Sultan of Damascus, who acknowledged allegiance to the Abbasside Khalif of Bagdad. Noureddin appointed Saladin, a powerful young Kurdish emir, and the nephew of the conqueror of Egypt, as his deputy in that country. By his brilliant qualities, Saladin won the support of the Egyptian army, and was meditating a revolt against the Sultan of Damascus when he was released from his allegiance to Noureddin by the latter's death, and was thus enabled to make himself Sultan of Egypt and Syria.

His Conquest of the Christian Kingdom of Jerusalem.

In 1187 Saladin attacked the Kingdom of Jerusalem, but soon magnanimously granted the Christians of Palestine a truce; but when a misguided knight interrupted the passage of Saladin's mother, seized her treasures and slew her attendants the exasperated Sultan recommenced hostilities, and defeated the Christian army in a sanguinary two days' battle near the Lake of Tiberias, taking Guy of Lusignan, the last Christian King of Jerusalem, prisoner, along with the Grand Master of the Knights Templars and many of the noblest Christian knights, of whom two hundred and thirty died the death of martyrs to their religion. As a result of his victory in the battle of Lake Tiberias, Saladin obtained possession of Joppa, Sidon, Acre, Cæsarea and many other towns. He failed in his siege of Tyre, but finally captured Jerusalem after a prolonged siege. Saladin, who surpassed his Christian foes in virtue, generosity and nobleness of heart, treated the inhabitants of the Holy City with mildness, but expelled the Europeans from the city, and caused the crosses to be torn down and the furniture of the Christian churches to be destroyed. The Mosque of Omar, which had been converted into a Christian church, was again consecrated to the religion of Islam.

Third Crusade.

Upon the arrival of intelligence of the capture of Jerusalem by Saladin, great alarm prevailed throughout the whole West of Europe; and from the shores of the Mediterranean to the coasts of the Baltic, armed bands set off for the Holy Land, and thus began the Third Crusade. The three leading sovereigns of Europe—Frederick Barbarossa of Germany, Philip Augustus of France, and Richard the Lion-hearted of England—led powerful armies against the Moslems (A. D. 1189), for the deliverance of the Holy City and the rescue of the Holy Land from its Moslem conquerors.

Frederick Barbarossa's Expedition and Death.

The Emperor Frederick Barbarossa with the German army marched by land to Asia Minor, and defeated the Sultan of Iconium in a great battle near the walls of his chief city; but the noble-hearted German Emperor lost his life in a stream which he had attempted to cross. His second son, Frederick, with a part of the expedition, proceeded to Palestine, and took part in the siege of Acre.

Founding of the Teutonic Knights.

Only one-tenth of the German army remained when it arrived before Acre, and its sufferings were so great that some soldiers from Bremen and Lübec organized a field hospital, devoting themselves to nursing their unfortunate fellow soldiers. The Duke of Suabia organized them into the new order of knighthood known as the *Teutonic Knights*, who combined the benevolent duties of the Knights of St. John and the military vows of the Knights Templars, devoting themselves to relieving the sick and defending the holy places of Palestine. In the progress of time the Teutonic Knights grew to be one of the most important military orders of Europe.

Siege of Acre.

Richard the Lion-hearted and Philip Augustus.

Capture of Acre.

The siege of Acre was important as it was the most convenient of the fortified seaports of the Holy Land for communication with Europe, and was the first enterprise of the Third Crusade in Palestine. Notwithstanding the vast forces of the besiegers, the siege lagged until the arrival of the English and French expeditions under Kings Richard the Lion-hearted and Philip Augustus. The besiegers were aroused to intense enthusiasm by the presence of Richard the Lion-hearted, who is regarded as the great hero of the Third Crusade, and in July, 1191, Acre was finally taken by storm by the Crusaders, after a siege of nearly two years, during which nine great battles were fought before the city.

Richard's Character.

His Wrongful Acts.

Richard the Lion-hearted was noted for his energy, ability and valor, as well as for his pride, severity and cruelty. His courage made him feared and respected by the Moslems. By his orders, the German banner, which Duke Leopold VI. of Austria had caused to be erected on the battlements of Acre, was torn down and trampled under foot by the English soldiers of the Crusade—an outrage for which the indignant Duke of Austria had his revenge, as we shall presently see. When the Moslems failed to fulfil the stipulations for the payment of a ransom for the captive Saracens, three thousand five hundred of them fell victims to the fiery temper of the English king. Lion-hearted Richard's great exploits, which won for him superior renown, also thus gained for him the jealousy and enmity of the other princes of the Third Crusade.

Quarrel between Richard the Lion-hearted and Philip Augustus.

The King of France, especially, was jealous of the superior military ability of the King of England. The two monarchs soon quarreled, and Philip Augustus returned to France, first solemnly swearing not to

seek to injure Richard during his absence in the Holy Land. The French king left a large part of his army in Palestine under the Duke of Burgundy, subject to the English monarch's command. But after returning to France, Philip Augustus violated his solemn oath by persuading Richard's brother John to seize the throne of England.

Treachery of the Duke of Burgundy.

Although he received news of the hostile acts of Philip Augustus, Richard the Lion-hearted remained in Palestine to complete the deliverance of the Christians from Moslem rule. He refortified Joppa, Ascalon and Gaza, engaging in the work like a common soldier. Richard advanced to attack Jerusalem, which was occupied by Saladin with an immense force. Either from cowardice or treachery, the Duke of Burgundy, in command of the French forces, refused to join Richard in the attack upon the Holy City, and the English king was obliged to retire to the coast, after bitterly denouncing the cowardice or treachery of his ally, the Duke of Burgundy.

Conrad of Montferrat and Henry of Champagne.

Conrad of Montferrat was chosen King of Jerusalem, and Richard the Lion-hearted made Guy of Lusignan King of Cyprus as indemnification for the loss of his empty title of King of Jerusalem, the English king having wrested Cyprus from the Greek Empire while on his way to the Holy Land. Conrad of Montferrat died before his coronation as King of Jerusalem could take place, and the empty honor was conferred on Count Henry of Champagne.

Richard's Journey Home.

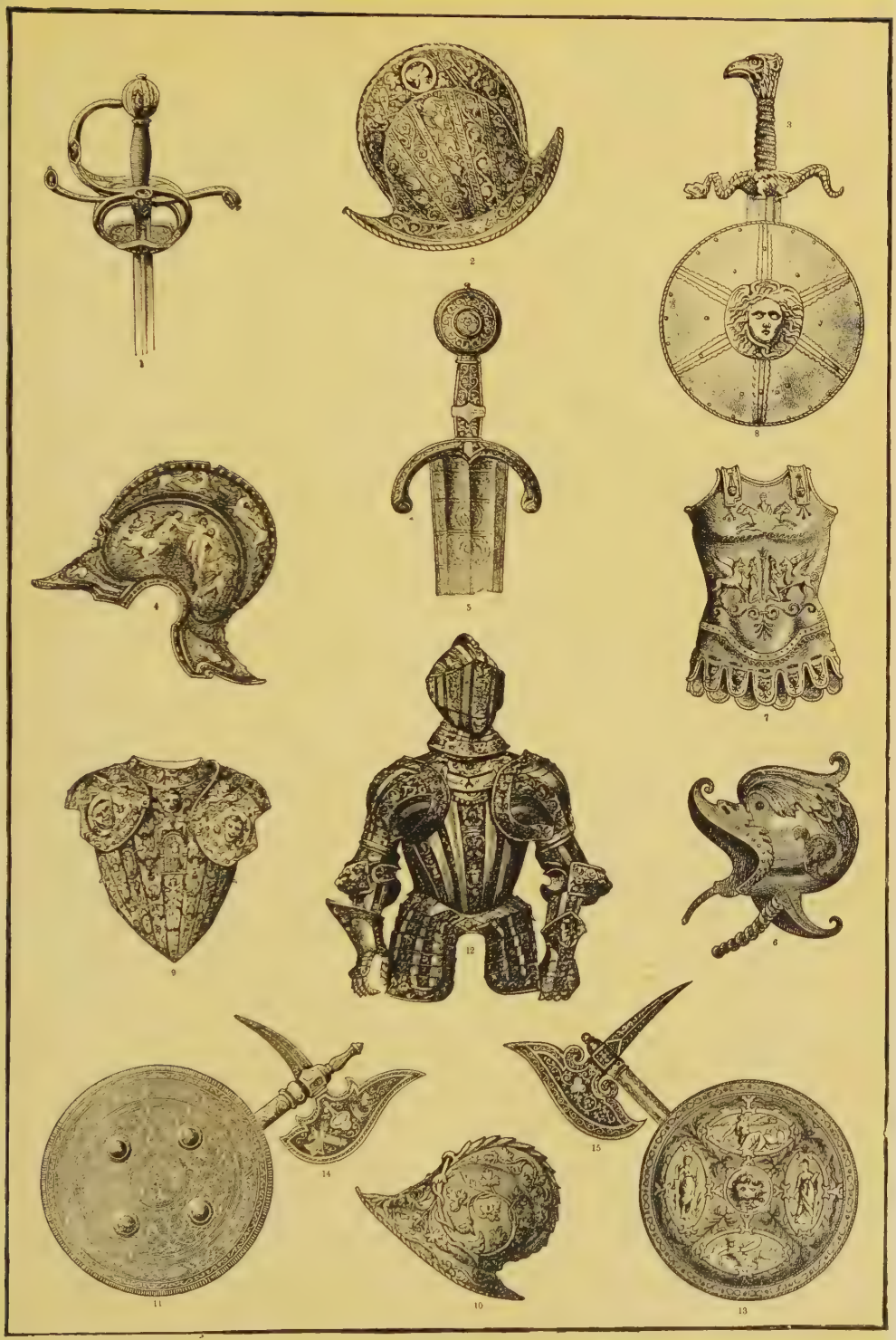
After relieving Joppa, which had almost been captured by Saladin, and after gaining a great victory over him near Ascalon, Richard the Lion-hearted, perceiving the impossibility of accomplishing anything with his lukewarm French allies, concluded a truce of three years and eight months with Saladin, and set out on his return, by sea, to his kingdom, A. D. 1192. His vessel, having been driven by a storm to the coast of Italy, Richard proceeded on his way to England, by land, through Germany; but he was seized and imprisoned in the castle of Trifels, by order of the Emperor Henry VI., at the instigation of Duke Leopold VI. of Austria, in revenge for the insult to the German flag after the capture of Acre; and only obtained his release upon the payment of a heavy ransom by his English subjects, whereupon he proceeded on his return to England.

His Captivity in Germany and Ransom.

Saladin's Successors.

During Richard's captivity in Germany, Sultan Saladin died in Palestine, A. D. 1193; and his three sons became Sultans of Aleppo, Damascus and Egypt, but most of his Syrian dominions fell into the possession of his brother Saphadin. The German princes undertook an expedition against Saphadin in 1197, and severely defeated him between Tyre and Sidon, liberating many cities and freeing nine thousand Christian captives. Immediately after they had won this victory the Germans received news of the death of the Emperor Henry VI.,

Saphadin's Defeat and Successes.



ARMS AND ARMOR

ARMS AND ARMOR.

DESCRIPTION OF PLATE.

1. Rapier carried by Rubens. 1630.
2. Morion of Italian workmanship. Sixteenth century.
3. Sword-hilt. Sixteenth century.
4. Helmet of Philip II of Spain.
5. Sword of Cæsar Borgia.
6. Helmet, damascened and partially gilded.
7. Roman breast-plate. From a statue of Germanicus, Lateran Museum.
8. Buckler. Sixteenth century.
9. Breast-plate with shoulder-pieces. From a suit of armor of the youthful Philip III of Spain.
10. Helmet. Sixteenth century.
11. Oriental buckler.
12. Armor, with Burgundian helmet. Italian workmanship of the sixteenth century.
13. Chased shield. Time of Henry II of France.
14 and 15. Halberds. Sixteenth century.

whereupon they returned to Germany. After their retirement Saphadin recaptured Joppa and massacred all its inhabitants.

SECTION III.—THE LAST FIVE CRUSADES.

Fourth Crusade.

In A. D. 1200 Pope Innocent III. proclaimed the Fourth Crusade, at the same time levying a tax upon all Christendom to defray the expenses of the new holy war. Those who were unable to join the army of the cross were permitted to purchase their exemption by money payment, and vast sums flowed into the papal treasury. A council of French barons, convened at Soissons, decided that the Crusading expedition should go to Syria by sea. To obtain the necessary shipping, a treaty was concluded with the Republic of Venice, the Crusaders agreeing to pay a liberal sum for the services of the Venetian fleet, and to bestow on the Venetian Republic some of the prizes captured during the holy war. The French and Italian knights under Count Baldwin of Flanders at once undertook the new Crusade.

Count Baldwin of Flanders.

Capture of Zara for the Venetians.

Soon after Easter, A. D. 1200, the Crusaders assembled at Venice; and as they were unable to raise the full sum requisite for the payment of the services of the Venetian fleet, the Doge of Venice consented to grant them more time on condition of their conquering Zara, a town on the coast of Dalmatia, which had revolted against Venice and offered its allegiance to the King of Hungary. The Crusaders captured Zara for the Venetians, after which they passed the winter at that place, where the plans were matured for diverting the expedition to another object.

The Crusade Diverted to Constantinople.

While wintering at Zara the Crusaders received an appeal from Constantinople to aid in dethroning a usurper and enthroning the rightful Greek Emperor, who agreed to defray most of the expenses of the Crusade and aid the Crusaders with his army. The Pope forbade this departure from the first objects of the Crusade, but the Crusaders paid no heed to the Pope's orders. Thus, instead of sailing to the Holy Land, they proceeded against Constantinople for the purpose of restoring to the throne of the Byzantine Empire, Isaac Angelus, who had been dethroned and imprisoned by his own brother.

Capture of Constantinople by the Crusaders.

Headed by the blind old Dandolo, Doge of Venice, the Crusaders appeared before Constantinople, took the city, and restored Isaac Angelus to the Greek throne; but when the French Crusaders demanded the rewards which had been promised to them, the inhabitants of Constantinople raised an insurrection in which the Emperor Isaac Angelus and his son Alexis perished. Thereupon the French Crusaders stormed and took the Byzantine capital, plundered the churches, palaces and

dwellings, destroyed many valuable monuments of art, and filled the whole city with terror and desolation.

Temporary Subversion of the Greek Empire.

After plundering Constantinople, the French Crusaders subverted the Byzantine, or Greek Empire, and established in its stead a new Roman, or Latin Empire, with Constantinople for its capital, and Count Baldwin of Flanders for its sovereign. This Latin kingdom lasted fifty-six years, after which it was overthrown, and the old Byzantine dynasty was restored to the throne of Constantinople in the person of Michael Palæólogus.

New Latin Kingdom

Crusading Bands.

The Fourth Crusade was without results, concerning Jerusalem; and at times after its conclusion separate bands of Crusaders, without chiefs or without discipline, made journeys to the Holy Land, and ventured upon the hazardous undertaking of restoring the Christian kingdom of Jerusalem and defending the Latin kingdom of Constantinople. In 1211 about ninety thousand children left their homes in Europe on a journey to the Holy Sepulcher, but many perished from hunger and fatigue in wandering through Italy after reaching Genoa, and most of the others were sold into slavery after embarking in ships on the sea and being captured by Moorish pirates; so that very few of them ever reached the Holy Land or again saw their homes.

Children's Crusade.

Fifth Crusade.

In 1216 Pope Innocent III. proclaimed the Fifth Crusade, the Christian warriors being led by King Andrew II. of Hungary, whose expedition consisted of knights and men-at-arms from every portion of Europe, and accomplished nothing. A second expedition, consisting chiefly of Germans, next set out, but, instead of proceeding to Palestine, sailed to Egypt, where it captured Damietta, but this entire body of Crusaders was finally compelled to surrender to the Sultan of Egypt, who furnished food to the starving remnants of the Christian army and permitted it to proceed to Syria.

Disastrous Expedition to Egypt.

Expedition of Emperor Frederick II.

In 1228 the excommunicated Emperor Frederick II. led a powerful expedition into Palestine, at a time when the Sultan of Egypt was at war with the governor of Damascus for the possession of Syria and Palestine. Pope Gregory IX. forbade all Christian warriors from joining the expedition until the Emperor Frederick II. should be relieved from the curse of the Church, which he had earned by his anti-papal activities in Italy. But in 1229, Frederick II was able to conclude a friendly armistice with Sultan Malek Kamel of Egypt by which Jerusalem and the greater part of the Holy Land came into the hands of the Christians. Such relations with an infidel were punished by an interdict laid upon the Holy City, and Frederick II was obliged to crown himself at Jerusalem without consecration by the Church. Returning soon after to Italy to renew the contest with Gregory IX, his diplomatic successes were rendered fruitless.

His Excommunication.

Recovery of Palestine by Treaty.

Sixth Crusade.

In 1234, for the Sixth Crusade, a number of English nobles, headed by Richard, Earl of Cornwall, took the cross. In Palestine the English Crusaders were joined by a French army under the King of Navarre. By a mere show of force, the Crusaders compelled the Sultan of Egypt to restore to them most of Palestine, after which they rebuilt the walls of Jerusalem and reconsecrated the churches.

Recovery of Palestine.

In the year A. D. 1243, nine years after the Sixth Crusade, the Korasmians, a fierce tribe of barbarians from the plains of Tartary, overran Palestine, carrying slaughter and desolation wherever they appeared, took Jerusalem, massacred its inhabitants, destroyed the Holy Sepulcher, and wasted the flower of the Christian chivalry in a desperate battle at Gaza; but they were finally defeated by the Christian and Turkish armies, which, for the moment, united against the common enemy.

Palestine Ravaged by the Korasmians.

Their Defeat.

The horrible deeds of the Korasmians in Palestine led to the Seventh Crusade, which was conducted by the French king, Louis IX., or St. Louis, who, in 1248, accompanied by his three brothers, the Counts of Artois, Anjou and Poitou, and many of the French nobles, sailed at the head of a powerful expedition for the East, passing the winter in Cyprus, and proceeding to Egypt in the spring of 1249. After taking the town of Damietta the French Crusaders started for Cairo, but were defeated in the battle of Mansourah and compelled to make a disastrous retreat, while the French fleet was destroyed in the Nile by means of Greek fire, and St. Louis was taken prisoner with all his nobles and twenty thousand men-at-arms by the Sultan of Egypt. The Sultan agreed to release his royal captive upon receiving a ransom of a million golden bezants, but was so impressed by the noble character of St. Louis that he voluntarily remitted one-fifth of the ransom money. St. Louis was released upon surrendering Damietta, and a ten years' truce was concluded between the Sultan and the French king. St. Louis then proceeded to Palestine, where he remained four years for the purpose of improving the government of the Holy Land, but he did not visit Jerusalem, as he could not conquer it. He returned to France in 1253, in consequence of the death of his mother, the queen-regent.

Seventh Crusade.

Disastrous Expedition of St. Louis to Egypt.

His Captivity and Ransom.

After the departure of St. Louis the rival Christian merchants, particularly the military orders, engaged in fierce quarrels with each other. A furious battle occurred between the Knights of St. John and the Knights Templars, most of the latter order being killed. This disgraceful strife was ended by an invasion of Syria and Palestine by the Mamelukes, a race of Circassians who had been held as slaves in Egypt and who obtained control of the government of that country. The

Christian Dissensions.

Mameluke Invasion of Palestine.

Mamelukes captured Joppa and the other principal towns of Palestine and Syria, taking Antioch and making a hundred thousand of its inhabitants prisoners.

Eighth Crusade.

In consequence of the fall of Antioch, St. Louis undertook the Eighth Crusade in 1270, being joined by Prince Edward of England and the powerful English Earls of Pembroke and Warwick. This was the last of those great expeditions of the Christians against the Moslems. The French fleet having been driven by a storm upon the coast of Sardinia, St. Louis resolved to attack the piratical Moors of Northern Africa; his brother, Charles of Anjou, King of Sicily, desiring to recover Northern Africa, which had formerly been tributary to the Neapolitan kingdom. After landing on the African coast the valiant French monarch captured and plundered Carthage and besieged Tunis; but soon a pestilential disease carried St. Louis, one of his sons and the greater number of his followers to their graves. The surviving French leaders concluded a treaty of peace with the Moors, and returned to France.

Expedition of St. Louis to Tunis.

His Death.

Prince Edward of England in Palestine.

Prince Edward of England—afterward King Edward I.—who participated in the Eighth Crusade, went to the Holy Land, where he performed many gallant exp'oits, and struck such terror into the hearts of the Saracens that they hired an assassin to murder him. Prince Edward wrenched a poisoned dagger from the hand of the assassin; but in the scuffle the prince received a wound in the arm which might have proved fatal had not his affectionate wife, Eleanor, who had accompanied him to Palestine, sucked the poison from the wound. His forces took Nazareth and defeated the Turks, after which he concluded a ten years' truce with the Sultan of Egypt; but the death of his father, King Henry III., in 1272, caused his return to England to assume the crown of that country.

Moslem Capture of Acre and Reconquest of Palestine.

The Christian outrages upon the Mohammedans put a sudden end to the truce concluded between Prince Edward and the Sultan of Egypt, and the Sultan headed a large army to thoroughly overthrow the Christian power in the Holy Land. The Moslems gradually recovered their lost power in Palestine and captured fortress after fortress from the Christians, who finally made a stand at Acre, which was one of the most infamous places in the world at that time, and where the Christian cause was disgraced by its champions. In 1291 Sultan Khalil, of Egypt, with two hundred thousand men, besieged Acre, and, after a vigorous siege, took the city by storm, and sixty thousand Christians were massacred or enslaved. The Sultan caused the churches and fortifications of the Christian cities to be utterly demolished. The Holy Sepulcher was still permitted to be visited by pious Christian pilgrims; but the remaining Christians voluntarily retired from Syria, which for two centuries

had been drenched with the blood of millions of the warriors of Christendom and Islam.

SECTION IV.—RESULTS OF THE CRUSADES.

Effect on Chivalry.

THE Crusades ennobled the knightly class by furnishing a higher aim to their efforts, and gave rise to the establishment of new orders, which presented a model of Chivalry and sought to possess all the knightly virtues. Of these new orders were the Knights of St. John, the Knights Templars and the Teutonic Knights, which combined the spirit of the knight and the monk, their vows being chastity, poverty, obedience, and war against the Moslems.

Knights of St. John.

After the reconquest of the Holy Land by the Turks the Knights of St. John established themselves in the Island of Rhodes, which was finally wrested from them by the Ottoman Turks, in 1522, when they received the Island of Malta from the celebrated Charles V., Emperor of Germany and King of Spain.

Knights Templars.

The Knights Templars acquired great wealth by donations and legacies. After the loss of their possessions in Palestine the greater number of them returned to France, where they were undermined by infidelity and corruption, the consequence of which was the final dissolution of their order during the reign of King Philip the Fair (A. D. 1285–1314), the Grand Master, Jacques de Molay, and many others being burned alive, protesting their innocence to the last. Their wealth in gold went into the coffers of the king, while their fortresses and lands were bestowed on the Knights of St. John.

Teutonic Knights.

The Teutonic Knights were celebrated for their services in the civilization of the countries on the shores of the Baltic sea. They defended Christianity against the heathen Prussians in the region of the Vistula, and converted the inhabitants of the territory between the Vistula and the Niemen to Christianity, and established there the German language, customs and civilization. The cities of Culm, Thorn, Elbing, Königsburg and others arose; bishoprics and monasteries sprung up; and German industry and civilization produced a comp'ete change.

Blow to the Feudal System.

The Crusades gave rise to a free peasantry and tended to break up the Feudal System, as by their means great numbers of serfs received their freedom, and extended the power and influence of the burgher class and of the towns. The rich barons were compelled to sell their possessions, for the purpose of raising money to equip troops and to transport them to the Holy Land.

Diffusion of Knowledge.

The Crusades promoted the diffusion of knowledge and the advancement of science and literature. Those who engaged in them were at

first deplorably ignorant and illiterate; but when they came in contact with the Greek and Arabian civilization they acquired a fondness for science and literature, and after returning to Europe they imparted the same spirit to their countrymen.

Promotion of Commerce.

The Crusades gave great encouragement to commerce, as by their means different countries were brought into communication and more intimate commercial relations with each other; and the advantage of a mutual exchange of products was soon perceived. In consequence, great progress was made in the arts of navigation and ship-building; and many flourishing cities, such as Venice, Pisa and Genoa, acquired immense wealth and attained to vast commercial importance. The great Venetian traveler, Marco Polo, visited China and other countries of the Far East.

Sect of the Assassins.

About the time of the First Crusade the Mohammedan prophet Hassan founded the fanatical sect of the *Assassins*, who dwelt in the mountains of Syria, and who became the terror alike of Christians, Jews and Turks. These assassins were blindly devoted to their chief, "The Old Man of the Mountain," and paid the most implicit obedience to his commands; and they believed that if they sacrificed their lives for his sake they would certainly be rewarded with the highest joys of paradise. Whenever the Old Man of the Mountain considered himself injured by any one he dispatched some of his Assassins secretly to murder the aggressor. Thus was derived the common name of *assassin*, which has ever since been applied to a secret murderer.

SECTION V.—CRUSADE AGAINST THE ALBIGENSES.

The Albigenses.

The Crusades gave greater power and influence to the clergy, and multiplied the riches of the Church. They also tended to exalt the religious enthusiasm produced by them into a spirit of fanatical intolerance. This intolerance was soon manifested in a Crusade against the *Albigenses*, a new religious sect which arose in the South of France, and which was a branch of the *Waldenses*, or *Vaudois*, which arose in the valleys of Piedmont, in the twelfth century, and whose leader was Peter Waldo, a rich merchant of Lyons, who resigned all his wealth from motives of piety.

Alarm of the Church.

The growth of heresy had already alarmed the devoutly orthodox during the reign of Pope Alexander III., and a general council of the Church had pronounced a solemn decree against the Albigenses. But the feudal lords of France and Italy did not readily adopt an edict which would have deprived them of their best vassals, and the new opinions were secretly preached throughout most of Europe.

A Few Extremists.

Many of the preachers of this new reformation revived many of the doctrines of the Manichæans and Paulicians. A few enthusiasts ascribed the Old Testament to the principle of Evil, asserting that "God is there described as a homicide, destroying the world by water, Sodom and Gomorrah by fire, and the Egyptians by the overflow of the Red Sea."

General Doctrines of the Albigenses.

These were, however, the sentiments of a very small portion of the Albigenses; the great bulk of the reformers protesting only against the doctrine of transubstantiation, the sacraments of confirmation, confession and marriage, the invocation of saints, the worship of images, and the temporal power of the prelates. Their enemies acknowledged their moral character in its external purity; but invented the most outrageous calumnies regarding their secret practices, without ever producing a shadow of evidence to sustain the charges, and therefore without incurring any hazard of refutation.

Albigensian Teachers.

The reform made silent progress; as the efforts of the *paterins*, or Albigensian teachers, were directed rather to forming a moral and pure society within the Church than to establishing a new sect. They appeared desirous of holding the same relation to the Roman Church that John Wesley designed the Methodists to keep towards the Church of England. Their labors produced an independence of spirit and freedom of judgment which would probably have caused an open revolt had not Pope Innocent III. perceived the peril which menaced Church unity, and determined to crush such freedom of thought before its exercise could further spread heretical doctrine.

Crusade Ordered by Pope Innocent III.

By his first step in the work of suppression, Pope Innocent III. appealed to cupidity and self-interest. He relinquished the confiscated properties of heretics to the barons, and ordered that the enemies of the Church should be forever banished from the lands of which they were deprived, after which he sent commissioners into the South of France to examine and punish those who were suspected of holding heretical opinions, thus laying the first foundation of the Inquisition. The arrogance and violence of these papal emissaries aroused bitter opposition. When the commissioners discovered that their persecutions were unpopular they determined to uphold their power by armed force, and soon succeeded in collecting an army.

Peter de Castelnau and Count Raymond VI. of Toulouse.

Raymond VI., Count of Toulouse, was engaged in a war with the neighboring barons; and the papal legate, Peter de Castelnau, offered to act as mediator. He went to the barons, from whom he obtained a promise that, if Count Raymond VI. would consent to their demands, they would use all their forces to extirpate heresy. Castelnau drew up a treaty on these conditions, and offered it to Raymond VI. for his signature. The Count of Toulouse was naturally reluctant to pur-

chase the slaughter of his best subjects by the sacrifice of his dominions and the admission of a hostile army into his territories. He peremptorily refused his consent; whereupon Castelnau excommunicated Raymond VI., placed his dominions under an interdict, and wrote to the Pope for a confirmation of the sentence.

Murder of Castelnau.

Pope Innocent III. confirmed his legate's sentence, and commenced preaching a Crusade; but his anger was intensified when he was informed that Castelnau had been slain by a gentleman of Toulouse whom he had personally insulted (A. D. 1208). Though Count Raymond VI. seems to have had no share in this murder, the papal punishment was chiefly directed against him. He was excommunicated, his subjects were absolved from their oath of allegiance to him, and King Philip Augustus of France was invited to deprive him of his estates.

Excommunication of Count Raymond VI.

The Monks of Citeaux as Crusaders.

The French king was too busily engaged in wars with King John of England and King Otho IV. of Germany to turn his attention to the extirpation of heresy; but he permitted a Crusade against the Albigenses to be preached throughout his kingdom, and the monks of Citeaux became the principal missionaries of this war. These monks promised to those who lost their lives in the struggle the pardon of all sins committed from the day of birth to that of death; and to those who survived they promised indulgence, the protection of the Church, and possible worldly profit.

The Dominican Monks and the Inquisition.

While the monks were enlisting bands of fierce wretches, who believed that they might expiate their former crimes in this warfare against heretics, Pope Innocent III. was preparing a new mission to Languedoc, the savage brutalities of which surpassed those of the worst Crusaders. The new monastic order of the Dominicans was founded with the Spaniard Dominicus at its head, whose special object was the extirpation of heresy by preaching against the doctrines of those who dissented from the Church and converting those who could be convinced by argument. Their institution was the dreaded Inquisition, which seems to have been originally planned by the Bishop of Toulouse, who introduced it into his diocese about seven years before it was formally sanctioned by Pope Innocent III. at the council of the Lateran.

Count Raymond VI. and Raymond Roger of Albi.

Count Raymond VI. of Toulouse and his nephew Raymond Roger, Viscount of Albi, alarmed at the coming danger, appeared before the papal legate, Arnold, Abbot of Citeaux, to avert the approaching storm by explanations and submissions. They protested that they had never sanctioned heresy and that they were entirely innocent of the murder of Castelnau. The severity with which the legate treated them convinced the young Viscount Raymond Roger that nothing could be hoped for from negotiation, and he returned to his estates, determined to de-

SCENES FROM THE CRUSADES

1. Peter the Hermit Preaching the First Crusade
2. Massacre at Antioch
3. Te Deum after Victory, Seventh Crusade
4. Throwing Heads into Nice

From Drawings by Gustave Doré

fend himself to the last extremity. The Count of Toulouse displayed less fortitude, and promised to submit to any terms which the Pope would impose.

Severe Terms of Pope Innocent III.

The Pope received Count Raymond's ambassadors with seeming indulgence, but offered absolution only on the most severe terms. He demanded that the count should make common cause with the Crusaders, to assist them to extirpate heretics—his own subjects—and to surrender seven of his best castles as a pledge of his intentions. Pope Innocent III. declared that if Count Raymond VI. performed these conditions he would be absolved, and even taken into special favor; but at the very same moment the Pope was probably resolved on the count's destruction.

Fanatical Crusaders.

In the spring of A. D. 1209 all the fanatics who had taken up arms at the preaching of the monks of Citeaux commenced assembling on the frontiers of Languedoc. The land spread in beauty before them was soon to be a howling wilderness. Raymond VI. sank into abject cowardice. He surrendered his castles; he promised implicit submission to the papal legate; he even permitted himself to be publicly beaten with rods before the altar, as a penance for his errors. He was rewarded for his humiliation by being allowed to serve in the ranks of the Crusaders and to act as their guide in the war against his nephew.

Cowardice of Count Raymond VI.

Raymond Roger's Bold Resolution.

Viscount Raymond Roger exhibited a bolder spirit. As he found the papal legate implacable, he summoned his barons, and, after stating all his exertions to maintain peace, he made a stirring appeal to their generosity and their patriotism. All determined on an obstinate defense. Even those who adhered to the Roman Church rightly feared the excesses of a fanatical horde eager for shedding blood and for gratifying a ruffian thirst for plunder. As the Crusaders advanced, some castles and fortified towns were abandoned to them, while others not subject to the charge of heresy were permitted to ransom themselves. Villemur was burned, and Chasseneuil capitulated after a vigorous defense. The garrison was allowed to retire, but all the inhabitants of both sexes suspected of heresy were cast into the flames amid the ferocious shouts of the victors, and their property was abandoned to the soldiery.

Victories and Cruelties of the Crusaders.

Capture and Massacre of Beziers.

Beziers was the next town attacked. The citizens determined to offer a vigorous resistance, but in a sally which they made they were routed by the advance guard of the Crusaders, and were so vigorously pursued that victors and vanquished entered the gates together. Before taking advantage of their unexpected success, the victorious leaders asked the Abbot of Citeaux how they should distinguish Catholics from heretics. The legate replied: "Kill all; God will distinguish those who belong to Himself." His words were obeyed only too well. All

the inhabitants of Beziers were atrociously massacred, and when the town was thus one vast slaughter-house it was fired, so that its ashes and ruins might serve as a warning to all heretics.

Defense of Carcassonne by Raymond Roger.

The last stronghold of Viscount Raymond Roger was Carcassonne, which was heroically defended by the valiant young viscount. Simon de Montfort, the leader of the Crusaders, found himself thwarted by a mere youth, and was detained for eight days before he obtained possession of the suburbs and was able to invest the town.

Bold Stand of Raymond Roger and Peter II. of Aragon.

Peter II., King of Aragon, whom the Viscount of Albi and Beziers recognized as his suzerain, took advantage of this delay to interfere in behalf of his young vassal, who was also his nephew. The papal legate, unwilling to offend so powerful a sovereign, accepted Peter's mediation; but when he was asked what terms he would grant to the besieged he demanded that two-thirds of Carcassonne should be abandoned to plunder. Viscount Raymond Roger spurned these conditions. Peter applauded his courage and personally addressed the garrison, saying: "You know the fate that awaits you; make a bold defense, for that is the best means of finally obtaining favorable terms."

Captivity of Raymond Roger.

The prudence of Peter's advice was demonstrated by the conduct of the papal legate in consenting to a capitulation; but when Viscount Raymond Roger, trusting to the faith of the treaty, appeared in the camp of the Crusaders he was treacherously arrested and cast into prison with his attendants. Warned by their leader's fate, the citizens of Carcassonne evacuated the town during the night, but some of the fugitives were overtaken by the cavalry of the Crusaders. The papal legate selected a group of victims from his prisoners, and four hundred of them were burned alive, while about fifty were hanged.

Capture and Massacre of Carcassonne.

Success of the Crusade.

The objects of the Crusade appeared to have been obtained. Count Raymond VI. of Toulouse submitted to all the humiliating conditions demanded of him. The Viscount of Narbonne abandoned all intentions of resistance, and the gallant lord of Beziers was a prisoner. The Crusaders also were beginning to become weary of the war; the French lords were ashamed of the cruelties which they had sanctioned and the faith which they had violated; and the knights and common soldiers were anxious to revisit their homes, after completing their term of service.

Arnold, Abbot of Citeaux, and Simon de Montfort.

But the papal legate, Arnold, Abbot of Citeaux, was not yet satisfied. He summoned a council of the Crusaders, and tried to induce them to remain, for the purpose of protecting their conquests of Beziers and Carcassonne, the investiture of which he conferred on Simon de Montfort, the leader of the Crusaders. But most of the French nobles refused to remain any longer, and Simon de Montfort was obliged to defend his new acquisitions with the vassals from his own estates. The

gallant Viscount Raymond Roger was detained a close prisoner in his own baronial hall at Carcassonne, where he soon died of an illness produced by grief, or, perhaps more likely, as was generally suspected, by poison.

New Crusade against the Albigenses.

The armies of the Crusaders retired, leaving the country a desert and calling it peace; but the sufferings of the Albigenses were not exhausted. The monks of the Inquisition, attended by trains of executioners, proceeded through the country inexorably, torturing and executing all who were suspected of heresy; while the monks of Citeaux, who had found honor and profit in preaching a Crusade against heretics, were not disposed to relinquish the lucrative employment. Against the powerless inhabitants, a renewal of warfare was begun with extermination of all heretics as its object, and their leaders were compelled to take command. The bloody chapter was resumed without moderation or mercy.

Simon de Montfort, Raymond VI. of Toulouse, and Peter II. of Aragon.

Strengthened by such reinforcements, Simon de Montfort threw off the mask of moderation, and declared war against the unfortunate Count Raymond VI. of Toulouse. The count was again excommunicated and his dominions were laid under an interdict; but Simon de Montfort soon discovered that he had been premature in his hostilities. King Peter II. of Aragon refused to receive his homage for the viscounties of Beziers and Carcassonne, declaring that he would uphold the claims of the legitimate heir, Raymond Trencanel, the only son of the unfortunate Viscount Raymond Roger, a child about two years old, who was safe under the guardianship of the Count de Foix. A formidable rebellion broke out in the territories so recently assigned to Simon de Montfort; and only eight towns and castles remained in his possession, out of the entire two hundred that had been previously granted to him.

Formidable Albigensian Rebellion.

Raymond VI. of Toulouse and Pope Innocent III.

Count Raymond VI. of Toulouse was too much afraid of ecclesiastical vengeance to defend himself by force of arms. He sought the protection of his sovereign, the King of France, and he personally went to Rome to implore absolution. Pope Innocent III. promised him pardon on condition that he cleared himself from the charge of heresy and of participation in the murder of Castelnau; but when he appeared before the council he found that his judges had been won over by his inexorable enemy, Arnold, Abbot of Citeaux; and, instead of being allowed to enter on his defense, he was confronted by a series of new and unexpected charges. His remonstrances were in vain, his tears were met with mockery and insult, and the sentence of excommunication was formally ratified.

Raymond's Second Excommunication.

Massacres and Executions of Albigenses.

In the meantime the Crusaders, under the leadership of Simon de Montfort, pursued their career of extermination. Those spared by the sword perished by the hands of the executioner, and the ministers of a God of peace were found to be more cruel and vindictive than a licentious soldiery. Even King Peter II. of Aragon became alarmed, and sought the friendship of the Pope's favorite by affiancing his infant son to a daughter of Simon de Montfort. The King of Aragon perhaps expected that by this concession he would obtain more favorable terms for the Count of Toulouse, whom he accompanied to Arles, where a provincial council was convened. The terms of peace proposed by the papal legate were so extravagant that even Count Raymond VI. rejected them and secretly retired from Arles in company with the King of Aragon. For the third time the unfortunate count was excommunicated, pronounced an enemy of the Church and an apostate from the faith, and declared to have forfeited his title and estates.

Peter II. of Aragon and Raymond VI. of Toulouse.

Raymond's Third Excommunication.

Capture and Massacre of Lavaur Castle.

The war against the Albigenses was now renewed with vigor. After a long siege, Simon de Montfort took the strong castle of Lavaur by assault, hanged its heroic governor, the lord of Montreal, and massacred the entire garrison. Says the Church historian: "The lady of the castle, who was an execrable heretic, was by the earl's orders thrown into a well, and stones were heaped over her. Afterward the pilgrims collected the numberless heretics that were in the fortress, and burned them alive with great joy."

Successful Defense of Toulouse by Raymond VI.

The same cruelties were perpetrated at all other places through which the Crusaders passed, and the friends of the victims took revenge by intercepting convoys and murdering stragglers. Simon de Montfort only laid siege to Toulouse when he had received a large reinforcement of pilgrims from Germany. In this extremity, Count Raymond VI. displayed a vigor and courage which would probably have saved him from ruin if he had manifested it in the earlier part of the war. He made so vigorous a defense that the Crusaders were obliged to raise the siege and to retire precipitately.

Ambition of the Monks of Citeaux.

The ambition of the monks of Citeaux soon weakened the friendship between them and the Crusaders. Under the pretense of reforming the ecclesiastical condition of Languedoc, the monks expelled the leading prelates and seized the richest sees and benefices for themselves. The papal legate, Arnold, Abbot of Citeaux, took the archbishopric of Narbonne for his share; after which he abandoned Simon de Montfort and went to lead an expedition against the Moors in Spain. Innocent III. was brought to a partial realization of the selfish forces at work, and, at the request of King Peter II. of Aragon, he promised Count Raymond VI. a fair trial; but the Pope found it not so easy a matter to allay the spirit of fanaticism which he had aroused. He was dis-

Pope Innocent III. and the Crusaders.

obeyed by his legates and reproached by the Crusaders, so that he was obliged to retrace his conciliatory steps and to abandon the Count of Toulouse to the fury of his enemies.

Battle of Muret and Death of Peter II. of Aragon.

King Peter II. of Aragon came to the assistance of his unfortunate relative, and encountered the formidable army of the Crusaders at Muret, but he was killed in the beginning of the conflict. Disheartened by the loss of their leader, the Spanish chivalry took to flight, and the infantry of Toulouse could offer no effective resistance single-handed. Trampled under foot by the pilgrim-knights, the citizens of Toulouse who followed their monarch to the fatal field were either cut to pieces or drowned in the Garonne.

Simon de Montfort and His Conquests.

Just when the Crusaders' victory at Muret appeared to have confirmed the power of Simon de Montfort, King Philip Augustus of France triumphed over his enemies, King John of England and King Otho IV. of Germany. But the ambitious leader of the Crusaders gained very little from his success, as the court of Rome commenced to show distrust of his power (A. D. 1215). His influence with the papal legates and the prelates who had directed the Crusades was still very great, however, and the council of Montpellier granted him the investiture of Toulouse and all the conquests made by "the Christian pilgrims."

King Philip Augustus of France and His Son Louis.

The King of France was not disposed to acquiesce in this arrangement, and sent his son Louis into the South of France, under the pretense of joining in the Crusade, but really to watch the proceedings of Simon de Montfort. Louis afterwards returned to accept the crown of England, and the quarrel in which this proceeding involved him with the Pope diverted his attention from Languedoc.

Quarrel between Arnold, Abbot of Citeaux, and Simon de Montfort.

Arnold, Abbot of Citeaux, after returning from his expedition against the Moors in Spain, took possession of his archbishopric of Narbonne, where he commenced exercising the rights of a sovereign prince. Simon de Montfort, who had assumed the title of Duke of Narbonne, in addition to that of Count of Toulouse, denying that Arnold had any right to temporal jurisdiction, entered the city of Narbonne by force, and erected there the ducal standard. Arnold fulminated an excommunication against Simon de Montfort, and placed the city of Narbonne under an interdict while he remained therein; but he found, to his great surprise and mortification, that these spiritual weapons were scorned by the leader of the Crusade.

Temporary Triumph of Raymond VI. over Simon de Montfort.

Simon de Montfort was confronted by a more formidable enemy in the person of Raymond VII., son of Count Raymond VI. of Toulouse, who aided his father in a determined effort to recover the ancient inheritance of his race. Contrary to his own better judgment, Simon de Montfort was induced by Foulke, Bishop of Toulouse, to treat the

citizens with treacherous cruelty because they manifested some symptoms of affection for their former lord. The result was that the people of Toulouse profited by Simon de Montfort's absence to invite Count Raymond VI. to resume his authority, and the count was publicly received into his old capital amid universal acclamations of joy, September 13, A. D. 1217.

Siege of Toulouse and Death of Simon de Montfort.

By the assistance of the papal legate and the clergy, Simon de Montfort collected a large army; but the bravest of the Crusaders had perished in the preceding wars, or had returned to their homes in disgust. It was now universally known that heresy was extinguished in Languedoc, and that the war was maintained merely to gratify private revenge and individual ambition. Simon de Montfort laid siege to Toulouse, but was slain in a sally of the inhabitants; and after a vain effort to revenge his death, his son Almeric retired to Carcassonne.

Siege and Capture of Avignon by Louis VIII. of France.

The death of Simon de Montfort did not end the war against the Albigenses. Almeric de Montfort sold his claims over Languedoc to King Louis VIII. of France, the son and successor of Philip Augustus. Louis VIII. undertook a campaign to obtain possession of Toulouse; and with a powerful army he besieged Avignon, but only obtained possession of the town after a heroic defense on the part of the inhabitants, and after twenty thousand of his troops had perished miserably from disease and famine.

Final French Conquest of Languedoc.

Louis VIII. died in A. D. 1226, soon after the fall of Avignon, after a short reign of three years; but the queen-regent, Blanche, prosecuted the war with such vigor that Count Raymond VII. was reduced to submission, and his dominions were united to the French crown, A. D. 1229. The Inquisition was at once established in Languedoc, and this unhappy territory in the South of France has not yet fully recovered from the calamities which it suffered for its divergence from Christian orthodoxy.

Its Desolation.

MAP OF
EUROPE
A.D. 1200.
By I.S.Clare
SCALE OF MILES
0 25 50 100 200 300 400
REPUBLIC OF ICELAND
REIKIAVIK
Mt. Hecla
FAROE ISLES
SHETLAND ISLES
ORKNEY ISLES
HEBRIDES ISLES
ATLANTIC OCEAN
NORTH SEA
BAY OF BISCAY
MEDITERRANEAN SEA
ADRIATIC SEA
KINGDOM OF SCOTLAND
KINGDOM OF IRELAND
DUBLIN
EDINBURGH
LONDON
PARIS
ROME
NAPLES
SICILY
SARDINIA
Balearic Isles
GOTHLAND
KINGDOM OF SWEDEN
KINGDOM OF DENMARK
KINGDOM OF NORWAY
POMERANIA
KINGDOM OF BOHEMIA
KINGDOM OF HUNGARY
BUDA
CROATIA
BOSNIA
SERVIA
GALICIA
LEON
CASTILE
NAVARRE
ARAGON
SARAGOSSA
TOLEDO
CORDOVA
Granada
Malaga
Almeria
Seville
Murcia
Valencia
ALGARVE
PORTUGAL
LISBON
ALMOHADES
KM. BADSHIA
KM. OF THE BENI MERINS
KM. OF THE ABDELWADIDES
KM. OF ALGIER AND MAHADIA
KM. OF THE HAFSIDES
KM. OF MOROCCO
ALMORAVIDES
MAGRABO
AFRICA
Algiers
Constantina
Tremecen
Tripolis
Malta
Toulouse
Narbonne
Marseilles
Genoa
Florence
Ravenna
Venice
Trieste
Milan
Turin
Orleans
Bordeaux
Rouen
Calais
Dover
Canterbury
Winchester
Worcester
Lincoln
York
Durham
Berwick
Carlisle
Chester
Hereford
Exeter
Salisbury
Oxford
Cambridge
Norwich
Lancaster
Aberdeen
Perth
Stirling
Glasgow
Dumbarton
Inverness
Wexford
Waterford
Limerick
Galway
Cork
Kilkenny
Drogheda
Londonderry
Belfast
Armagh
Bergen
Stavanger
Upsala
Stockholm
Gothland
Oland
Helgoland
Ripen
Aalborg
Copenhagen
Roskild
Lund
Wisby
Dantzic
Konigsberg
Riga
Reval
Novogorod
Pleskow
Smolensko
Moscow
Kiow
Wilna
Cracow
Prague
Ratisbon
Vienna
Presburg
Buda
Pesth
Agram
Belgrade
Ragusa
Cattaro
Durazzo
Salonica
Constantinople
Adrianople
Gallipoli
Lepanto
Patras
Modon
Coron
Candia
Rhodes
Cyprus
Alexandria
Cairo
Tunis
Tripoli
Barca
Fez
Tangier
Ceuta
Gibraltar
Tarifa
Algeciras
Cadiz
Lisbon
Oporto
Coimbra
Evora
Badajoz
Toledo
Madrid
Segovia
Valladolid
Burgos
Pampeluna
Leon
Oviedo
Compostella
Lugo
Corunna
Bayonne
Toulouse
Montpellier
Nismes
Arles
Avignon
Lyons
Grenoble
Geneva
Basle
Strasburg
Metz
Treves
Cologne
Aix la Chapelle
Liege
Namur
Brussels
Ghent
Bruges
Antwerp
Utrecht
Amsterdam
Haarlem
Leyden
Rotterdam
Dort
Middleburg
Arnheim
Nimeguen
Zutphen
Deventer
Groningen
Embden
Bremen
Hamburg
Lubeck
Stettin
Rostock
Wismar
Stralsund
Brandenburg
Magdeburg
Hildesheim
Brunswick
Hanover
Minden
Osnaburg
Munster
Paderborn
Wesel
Dusseldorf
Coblentz
Mentz
Worms
Spires
Heidelberg
Manheim
Wurtzburg
Nuremberg
Augsburg
Ulm
Constance
Ratisbon
Passau
Linz
Salzburg
Inspruck
Trent
Verona
Mantua
Parma
Modena
Bologna
Ferrara
Padua
Vicenza
Brescia
Bergamo
Como
Pavia
Turin
Asti
Alessandria
Coni
Nice
Genoa
Pisa
Lucca
Siena
Perugia
Ancona
Rimini
Urbino
Ravenna
Forli
Faenza
Imola
Rome
Viterbo
Orvieto
Civita Vecchia
Naples
Capua
Gaeta
Aquino
Benevento
Salerno
Amalfi
Bari
Otranto
Brindisi
Taranto
Reggio
Messina
Palermo
Trapani
Marsala
Syracuse
Catania
Girgenti
Cagliari
Sassari
Bona
Constantina
Algiers
Tremecen
Oran
Tripolis
Malta
Toulouse
Narbonne
Marseilles
Genoa
Florence
Ravenna
Venice
Trieste
Milan
Turin
Orleans
Bordeaux
Rouen
Calais
Dover
Canterbury
Winchester
Worcester
Lincoln
York
Durham
Berwick
Carlisle
Chester
Hereford
Exeter
Salisbury
Oxford
Cambridge
Norwich
Lancaster
Aberdeen
Perth
Stirling
Glasgow
Dumbarton
Inverness
Wexford
Waterford
Limerick
Galway
Cork
Kilkenny
Drogheda
Londonderry
Belfast
Armagh
Bergen
Stavanger
Upsala
Stockholm
Gothland
Oland
Helgoland
Ripen
Aalborg
Copenhagen
Roskild
Lund
Wisby
Dantzic
Konigsberg
Riga
Reval
Novogorod
Pleskow
Smolensko
Moscow
Kiow
Wilna
Cracow
Prague
Ratisbon
Vienna
Presburg
Buda
Pesth
Agram
Belgrade
Ragusa
Cattaro
Durazzo
Salonica
Constantinople
Adrianople
Gallipoli
Lepanto
Patras
Modon
Coron
Candia
Rhodes
Cyprus
Alexandria
Cairo
Tunis
Tripoli
Barca
Fez
Tangier
Ceuta
Gibraltar
Tarifa
Algeciras
Cadiz
Lisbon
Oporto
Coimbra
Evora
Badajoz
Toledo
Madrid
Segovia
Valladolid
Burgos
Pampeluna
Leon
Oviedo
Compostella
Lugo
Corunna
Bayonne
Toulouse
Montpellier
Nismes
Arles
Avignon
Lyons
Grenoble
Geneva
Basle
Strasburg
Metz
Treves
Cologne
Aix la Chapelle
Liege
Namur
Brussels
Ghent
Bruges
Antwerp
Utrecht
Amsterdam
Haarlem
Leyden
Rotterdam
Dort
Middleburg
Arnheim
Nimeguen
Zutphen
Deventer
Groningen
Embden
Bremen
Hamburg
Lubeck
Stettin
Rostock
Wismar
Stralsund
Brandenburg
Magdeburg
Hildesheim
Brunswick
Hanover
Minden
Osnaburg
Munster
Paderborn
Wesel
Dusseldorf
Coblentz
Mentz
Worms
Spires
Heidelberg
Manheim
Wurtzburg
Nuremberg
Augsburg
Ulm
Constance
Ratisbon
Passau
Linz
Salzburg
Inspruck
Trent
Verona
Mantua
Parma
Modena
Bologna
Ferrara
Padua
Vicenza
Brescia
Bergamo
Como
Pavia
Turin
Asti
Alessandria
Coni
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Urbino
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Imola
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Taranto
Reggio
Messina
Palermo
Trapani
Marsala
Syracuse
Catania
Girgenti
Cagliari
Sassari
Bona
Constantina
Algiers
Tremecen
Oran
Tripolis
Malta

Longitude from Greenwich
East 70 75
ARCTIC OCEAN
WHITE SEA
MOUNTAINS
Petchora River
Obe
River
Dwina River
Onega River
Lake Onega
Lake Ladoga
Lake Peipus
Lake Ilmen
NOVGOROD
PRINCIPALITY OF NOVGOROD
REPUBLIC
PRINCIPALITY OF VLADIMIR OR SUSDAL
WOTJAKES
REPUBLIC OF KJAETKA
TSCHEREMISSES
GREAT
BULGARIA
River
BASCHGERDES
CATTIR
MORDUINES
Ural
TURKISH
TIBET
PRINCIPALITY OF TCHERNIGOV
PRINCIPALITY OF SMOLENSK
PRINCIPALITY OF KURSK
PRINCIPALITY OF RIEV
Minsk
Moscow
Smolensk
Kursk
Kiev
Dniester
Dnieper
Bug
Pruth River
Volga
River
KIPTSCAK
KANGLI
CHARAZENI
CASPIAN SEA
CUMANIA OR POLOWZI
SEA OF AZOF
PYTIMTARAKAN
KASSOGI
JASSEI
APARS
ALANIA
CHOHABMI
KM. GEORGIA
Tiflis
BLACK SEA
CONSTANTINOPLE
Adrianople
Heraclea
Sinope
Trebizond
EMP. TREBISOND
THRACIA EUROPA
ROMANIA
BITHYNIA
PAPHLAGONIA
Amasia
Nice
Prusa
GALATIA
Dorylaeum
BYZANTINE EMPIRE
LYCIA
PISIDIA
Antiochia
Ephesus
Smyrna
Rhodes
KM. OF ICONIUM OR KONIEH
KM. OF KERMAN
KM. OF MOSUL
KM. OF ARMENIA
KM. OF ALEPPO
KM. OF ORKHOITES
KM. OF ADSCHEMI DSCHEBAL
KM. OF IRAK ADSCHEMI DSCHEBAL
KM. OF ADERBIDJAN
KM. OF MATHABEKHS
KM. OF EDESSA
CO.
PAMPHILIA
Seleucia
Tarsus
Antioch
Aleppo
Hamah
Emesa
Baalbec
Damascus
Tripoli
Beyreut
Sidon
Sur (Tyre)
Acre
Joppa
Ascalon
Jerusalem
Dead Sea
Gerrah
Tiberias
Alexandria
Rosetta
Damietta
EGYPT
SEA
ARABIA
SELJUCIDES OF THE CALIPHATE
CALIPHATE OF THE ABBASSIDES
BAGDAD
Euphrates
Tigris
River
Kufa
Holwan
Hamadan
PERSIA
KINGDOM OF
KHUSISTAN
TABIRISTAN
PERSIAN GULF
65
60
55
50
45
40
35
30
40
45

CHAPTER XXV.

EMPIRE AND CHURCH.

SECTION I.—THE HOHENSTAUFENS, AND GUELFS AND GHIBELLINES (A. D. 1138–1273).

Emperor and Pope.

During the Middle Ages the two great powers of Europe were the Western, or Germano-Roman Empire, and the Latin, or Roman Catholic Church. The Emperor was regarded as the civil head of Christendom, and the Pope as the spiritual head; and the long and bitter struggle between them for supremacy was a prominent feature of mediæval history. For three centuries the *Guelfs* and *Ghibellines*—the former the adherents of the Popes, and the latter the partisans of the Emperors—kept Italy and Germany involved in civil war.

Guelfs and Ghibellines.

Conrad III., First of the Hohenstaufens, A. D. 1138–1152.

Upon Lothaire's death in A. D. 1138, his son-in-law Henry the Proud, Duke of Bavaria and Saxony, aspired to the German crown; but the German nobles chose Conrad of Suabia, the head of the Hohenstaufen family, to the throne of Germany, with the title of Conrad III. Thus began the reign of the famous dynasty of the Hohenstaufen, who occupied the throne of Germany for one hundred and twelve years. Conrad III. was only King of Germany, having never been crowned Emperor.

Henry the Proud, of Bavaria and Saxony.

As soon as Conrad III. ascended the German throne he struck a blow at Henry the Proud, ordering him to relinquish Saxony, claiming that it was unlawful for him to hold two duchies at the same time. Henry refused, and was deprived of both Bavaria and Saxony; the king bestowing Bavaria on Leopold IV., Margrave of Austria, and conferring Saxony on Albert the Bear, to whom the Emperor Lothaire had granted the Northern Mark of Saxony.

Civil War.

Henry the Proud appealed to arms to maintain his position, and he and his partisans rallied the Guelfic, or papal, party to their support. The cities which were averse to the Pope's interference in German affairs sustained King Conrad III. Henry the Proud died during the struggle, leaving his quarrel to his son Henry the Lion. In the interests of peace, Conrad III. induced Albert the Bear to resign the

Henry the Lion.

Albert the Bear.

duchy of Saxony, which was then conferred on Henry the Lion. The King rewarded Albert by erecting his mark into a separate government, which was afterwards called the Mark of Brandenburg, from the town of that name captured from the Wends by Albert.

His Territories.

The territories of Albert the Bear comprised Northern Saxony, Lusatia, Salzwedel and Brandenburg. In the district of Brandenburg he founded the city of Berlin about the same time that the Margrave Leopold IV. laid the foundations of Vienna. Count Welf, or Guelf, opposed this arrangement and continued the war in Bavaria. In A. D. 1140 Welf was defeated by King Conrad III. and was obliged to take refuge in the town of Weinsberg, which surrendered to the king after a long siege.

Count Welf.

Siege and Capture of Weinsberg.

Legend of the Siege of Weinsberg.

According to a well-known legend, Conrad III. resolved to destroy the town and put the garrison to the sword, but consented to permit the women to retire, allowing each to carry away what she could. The next morning the gates were opened, and a long line of women passed out, each carrying her lover or her husband on her back. King Conrad III. was so affected by this spectacle that he spared both the town and its inhabitants.

"Welf" and "Waiblingen," or Guelf and Ghibelline.

It was during the siege of Weinsberg that the war cries which resounded throughout Germany and Italy for three centuries were first heard. The king's troops took their name from their battle shout "Waiblingen," the name of a village which had been the home of the Hohenstaufen family. The rebel count's soldiers shouted their leader's name "Welf." These designations were subsequently assigned to the two great parties in the Germano-Roman Empire, which are most familiar to us in their Italian form of *Guelfs* and *Ghibellines*.

Pope Innocent II. and Antipope Anacletus.

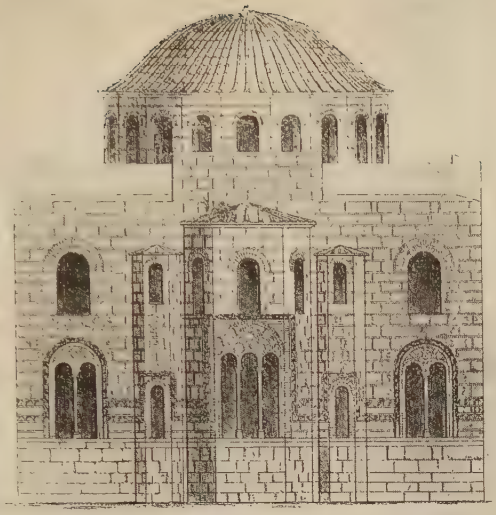
In the meantime the Papacy was divided between Innocent II. and Anacletus, the Antipope; but Innocent II. had triumphed over his rival, who died about A. D. 1139. Upon the accession of Conrad III. to the German throne, Pope Innocent II. sought to strengthen himself by a close alliance with King Roger of Sicily, who was so formidable a foe that both the Eastern Roman and the Germano-Roman monarchs, Manuel I. and Conrad III., formed a coalition against him. The Pope's authority was for a time set at defiance in Rome itself by the people, who were instigated by the stern denunciations of priestly ambition by the famous monk, Arnold of Brescia, who threw off the authority of the Pope and established a Senate and a Patrician named Giordano.

Arnold of Brescia.

Conrad III. and the Second Crusade.

There was now a lull in German affairs, and the German people could devote their attention to the great subject which was occupying the minds of the people of all Christendom—the Crusades. Conrad III. engaged in the Second Crusade with King Louis VII. of France,

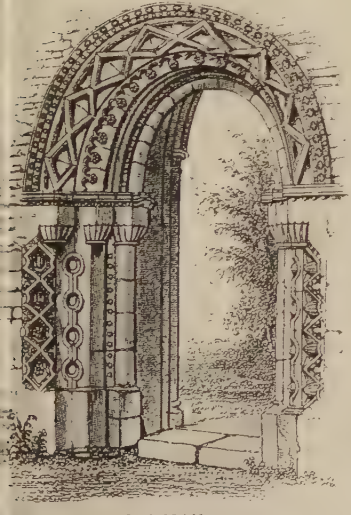
MOORISH
Santa Maria la Blanca Toledo



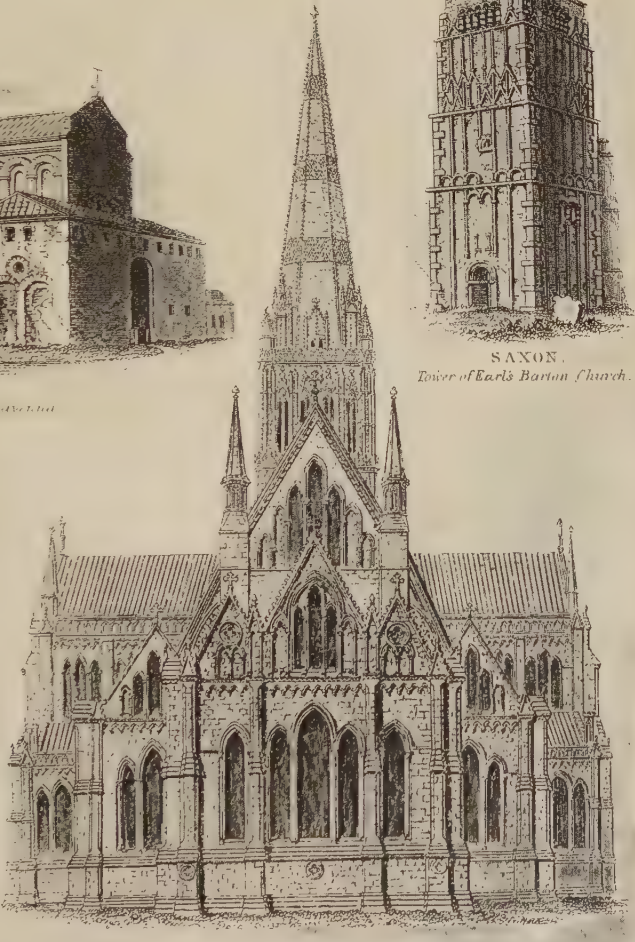
BYZANTINE
Church of Panagia Kaxdeniotissa Athens.

ROMANESQUE
San Appolinare ad Classem Ravenna

SAXON.
Tower of Earls Barton Church.



NORMAN.
Kirkham Priory Yorkshire



EARLY ENGLISH GOTHIC.
Salisbury Cathedral Wiltshire Height 404 Ft Length 220 Ft

Engraved by J.H. Le Keux

the German king furnishing an army of seventy thousand men for the great expedition, A. D. 1147. Conrad III. was accompanied by his nephew Duke Frederick of Suabia, his old enemy Count Welf, and the flower of the German chivalry. He acquired a reputation for valor and intrepidity in the East, but accomplished no definite results. He returned to Germany two years later, broken down in health. Soon after his return Count Welf again rebelled, but was defeated. Conrad III. died in A. D. 1152, while making preparations to go to Rome to be crowned Emperor.

Count Welf.

In pursuance of Conrad's advice, the German nobles elected his young nephew, the Duke of Suabia, to the dignity of King of Germany. The new sovereign is generally known as FREDERICK BARBAROSSA, the surname signifying "Red Beard." He was thirty-one years of age at his accession, and was considered a model of chivalry. He was a man of generous and noble impulses, and of strong and imperious will, so that he was devotedly loved by his friends and as implacably hated by his foes, as he could be harsh and stern in asserting his rights.

Frederick Barbarossa, A. D. 1152–1190.

Frederick Barbarossa sincerely desired to end the struggle between the Guelfs and the Ghibellines, and was happily in a position to do so. His mother was a sister to Henry the Proud, whose son, Henry the Lion, of Brunswick, was the chivalrous monarch's cousin, as well as his personal friend. Henry the Lion was already Duke of Saxony, and the king bestowed upon him the duchy of Bavaria, thus making him the most powerful prince in Germany, as well as head of the house of Guelf. Frederick Barbarossa compensated Henry, Margrave of Austria, for relinquishing Bavaria by erecting the Austrian territory into a separate and independent duchy, to be held as a fief of the German crown, and made it hereditary in both the male and female line.

Henry the Lion, of Brunswick.

Duchy of Austria.

Frederick Barbarossa led six military expeditions to Italy, for the purpose of subduing the rebellious Italians, who were founding independent republics, and openly settling the German monarch's authority at defiance. Animated by patriotism and by a love of freedom, the Lombard cities, headed by the haughty Milan, formed an effective burgher militia, and endeavored to cast off the imperial authority. This refractory spirit manifested itself in this king's first campaign, when, in accordance with a long-established usage, he reviewed his troops in the plains near Piacenza and required the princes and cities of Northern Italy to do him homage.

Frederick Barbarossa and the Lombard Cities.

Frederick Barbarossa proceeded to Italy in A. D. 1154, and at a great Diet held at Roncaglia he received the submission of all the Italian states. The young German king came with the intention and the power to restore the imperial authority in Italy, and he instantly set

Punishment of Milan and Her Allies.

about doing so. Complaints were made to him by the enemies of Milan, and that city had deeply offended him by refusing to acknowledge his authority and to furnish him the supplies to which he was entitled. Frederick Barbarossa therefore decided against Milan. Tortona, an ally of Milan, was likewise accused, and also condemned. The German king destroyed Asti and Chieri, and took and burned Tortona, the allies of Milan. He spared the lives of the inhabitants, who found refuge in Milan.

Frederick Barbarossa Crowned King of Lombardy and Emperor.

Frederick Barbarossa received the Lombard crown at Pavia; after which he proceeded to Rome, and was there crowned Emperor by Pope Adrian IV., who was Nicholas Breakspear, the only Englishman who ever became Pope. Frederick Barbarossa only obtained the imperial crown by giving up Arnold of Brescia, the remarkable Italian monk who had sought to bring back Rome to its ancient republican simplicity.

Arnold of Brescia.

Imbued with the ideas of the renowned French philosopher Abelard, Arnold of Brescia traversed Italy, denouncing the Pope's temporal power and the unworthiness of the clergy. While he was at Rome, busy with his project for a new Roman Republic, Pope Adrian IV. laid the city under an interdict; and the Roman Senators, unable to withstand the entreaties of the Roman people, submitted to the Pope and expelled Arnold. The monkish reformer fled, but was overtaken by Frederick Barbarossa's troops and made prisoner; and the Emperor handed him over to the Prefect of Rome, by whom he was tried, convicted and beheaded in the Castle of St. Angelo, in A. D. 1155.

His Overthrow and Execution.

Frederick Barbarossa and Pope Adrian IV.

Thus the Pope's authority was reëstablished in Rome. The Emperor also reduced Milan to submission, and placed the imperial eagle on the spire of its great cathedral, in token of his supremacy. But before very long the Pope and the Emperor commenced quarreling over the territories of the Countess Matilda, and this dispute soon developed into an effort on the Pope's part to deprive the Emperor of all his rights over Rome and his Italian possessions.

Rival Popes, Alexander III. and Victor IV.

Upon the death of Pope Adrian IV., in A. D. 1159, two Popes were elected—Alexander III. by the papal party, and Victor IV. by the imperial party. Each Pope excommunicated his rival and his followers, and the whole of Christendom was divided into two parties. Alexander III. was the more generally acknowledged pontiff; and a war which broke out between the Emperor and the cities of Lombardy enabled this Pope to offer a determined resistance to his powerful enemy, the Emperor Frederick Barbarossa.

Revolt of the Lombard Cities.

Milan's Revolt against Frederick Barbarossa.

After Frederick Barbarossa's return to Germany, the Milanese renewed their defiance of the Emperor, and destroyed Lodi and several other Lombard cities that adhered to the Emperor. Thereupon Fred-

erick Barbarossa led a second expedition against the revolted city, A. D. 1159. The Emperor had his regalian rights determined by jurists according to the Code of Justinian, and when Milan refused to submit to the decision he uttered the ban of the Empire against the refractory city.

Siege, Capture and Destruction of Milan.

A fierce war ensued between the Emperor and the Milanese. Frederick Barbarossa took and destroyed Crema, a city in alliance with Milan, and also forced Milan to surrender, after a siege of three and a-half years. After the carroccio, or carriage, that supported the chief banner of the city had been broken to pieces, and after the citizens had humbled themselves before the victorious Emperor, the walls and houses of Milan were leveled with the ground, and the inhabitants were forced to settle in four widely-separated points of their territory. The other Lombard towns were so terrified by the destruction of Milan that they received the imperial legate, or Podesta, within their walls.

Flight of Pope Alexander III.

The fall of Milan put an end to the resistance against the imperial authority in Lombardy, and made the situation of Pope Alexander III. dangerous in Rome. Sicily was so torn with violence and civil war that it no longer afforded the Pope his usual refuge, and he fled into France, where he remained three years. During this period the Antipope died, and was succeeded by Guido of Crema, who assumed the name of Paschal III. As the Emperor Frederick Barbarossa was detained in Germany by the events which occurred in that country, Pope Alexander III. seized the opportunity to return to Rome, A. D. 1165.

Antipope Paschal III.

Vassal Kings of Poland, Hungary and Bohemia.

Frederick Barbarossa's first successes in Italy made him the most powerful sovereign in Europe. The Kings of Poland and Hungary did homage to him for their crowns, and the Emperor rewarded the Duke of Bohemia for his faithful services by erecting his duchy into a kingdom. Frederick Barbarossa married Beatrice, the heiress of Franche-Comte, or the Free County of Burgundy; thus annexing that portion of Burgundy to the German kingdom.

Franche-Comte.

Lombard League against Frederick Barbarossa.

Frederick Barbarossa personally disliked Pope Alexander III., and he therefore refused to acknowledge his election and resisted his authority. For this course, the Pope excommunicated the Emperor, and united himself with the Lombard cities, which were exasperated by the tyranny of the imperial legate; and the entire Guelfic party in Italy rallied to the Pope's support, and a furious war ensued. Even Cremona and other cities which had formerly opposed Milan joined the coalition against the Emperor, which was definitely organized in A. D. 1167 under the name of the *Lombard League*. The Milanese, who headed the revolt against the imperial authority, had rebuilt their city, and had founded the city of Alessandria, which was named in honor of Pope Alexander III.

New City of Alessandria.

Frederick Barbarossa's Attacks on Ancona and Rome.

The Emperor's power was seriously menaced by the Lombard League, and about the same time the Eastern Emperor Manuel I. obtained a footing in Italy and gained over Ancona. Frederick Barbarossa, who had left Italy, soon returned with a powerful army, and vainly attempted to take Ancona, after which he marched against Rome. The Pope instantly fled, but Frederick Barbarossa's advantage was neutralized by the breaking out of a pestilence in his army, which forced him to a hasty retreat from Italy.

Siege of Alessandria.

Frederick Barbarossa returned to Italy in A. D. 1174 with a powerful army, and laid siege to Alessandria, but was compelled to retire by the army of the Lombard League. As Henry the Lion of Brunswick, Duke of Saxony and Bavaria, and head of the house of Guelf, refused to aid the Emperor, the German army was disastrously defeated by

Battle of Legnano.

the gallant Milanese in the decisive battle of Legnano, about fifteen miles from Pavia, A. D. 1176. Frederick Barbarossa himself was missing for several days. The heroism displayed by the chivalrous Emperor won the respect of the Lombard confederates and of the Pope;

Truce of Six Years.

and in 1177 a truce of six years was agreed upon at Venice, by which the Pope and the Emperor were reconciled. Frederick Barbarossa recognized Alexander III. as Pope, and was allowed to hold the Countess Matilda's territories until his death, when they were to revert to the Pope. Frederick Barbarossa returned to Germany at the conclusion of this Lombard war.

Peace of Constance.

At the expiration of the six years' truce, in A. D. 1183, a permanent treaty of peace was concluded at Constance, in Suabia. By the Peace of Constance the Emperor ceded to the towns all rights inside their walls. He allowed them to administer their own laws and to make peace on their own account. He retained the old regalian rights—the right to quarters, food and clothing for his army when he was in the territory of these cities; but these regalian rights were defined, and precautions were taken against future disputes. He allowed the Consuls to be retained, but they were nominally invested by him, and each Lombard city was to admit an imperial judge of appeal.

The Lombard Cities.

The Peace of Constance made the Lombard cities virtually independent, while they continued to constitute a part of the Germano-Roman Empire. Thus left to themselves, these cities became the chosen resorts of great men and the nurseries of science and art; but their liberation from imperial rule left them divided among themselves and arrayed against each other, with no power capable of harmonizing their disputes.

William II., the Norman King of Sicily.

Frederick Barbarossa afterwards gained another advantage over the Pope. William II., the Norman King of Sicily, had been the Pope's most faithful ally. The Emperor married his son Henry to Constance,

the daughter of Roger, the first Norman King of Naples and Sicily. On the death of William II., the reigning Norman king, who was childless, Henry would be the direct heir to the crown of Sicily.

His Son Roger.

As King of Germany, Frederick Barbarossa was a great and wise monarch. He was not wholly successful in abolishing private warfare, the great curse of his kingdom, but he imposed a check upon it by requiring those who indulged in it to give three days' notice to their enemies. All who refused to do so were to be treated as outlaws. Frederick Barbarossa likewise encouraged the growth of the cities by granting them important privileges and making some of them free. His acts were so judicious and popular that he won the support and affection of the whole German nation, even the German prelates being loyal to him.

Greatness and Power of Frederick Barbarossa.

Thus strong in the support and attachment of his German subjects, the great Emperor was able to bid defiance to the Pope's power in Germany, there being no opposition for the Pope to intrigue with. A papal legate once ventured to assert in the German Diet that the Empire was dependent upon His Holiness, thus raising such a storm of fury that his life was saved only by the Emperor's personal interposition. Had Henry IV. been a sovereign of the same stamp and vim, he might have reigned as a great and successful monarch, and escaped the humiliation to which he was subjected by the indomitable Pope Gregory VII.

His Defiance of the Pope.

Henry the Lion had for a long time enjoyed the favor and friendship of the Emperor Frederick Barbarossa, and advanced in power and prosperity. He had conquered the Slavonic provinces of Pomerania and Mecklenburg; had made war on the Frislanders on the Baltic, and the peasant republic of the Ditmarsens, in Holstein; and had obtained possession of an extensive dominion. He had established mines in the Hartz mountains. He had founded cities and bishoprics—Lübeck, Munich and Ratzburg—and attracted settlers from the Netherlands. But his ambition and acts of violence against princes and clergy were as well known as his great feats in war; so that the brazen lion that he erected before the citadel of his principal city, Brunswick, might be considered an emblem of his rapacity, no less than of his strength. His success made him haughty and arrogant, and his overbearing manner at length aroused the jealousy of the other German princes.

Power and Dominions of Henry the Lion, of Brunswick.

In A. D. 1176, having become angry with Frederick Barbarossa because he refused to bestow the city of Goslar upon him, Henry the Lion took a mean advantage of the Emperor, deserting him in the most critical period of his war with the Lombard cities, and returning to Germany with his troops. This defection caused the Emperor's defeat in the battle of Legnano, from which field Frederick Barbarossa

Henry the Lion's Desertion of Frederick Barbarossa.

escaped with difficulty. The Emperor is said to have begged Henry the Lion on his knees not to desert him, but in vain.

Henry the Lion Deprived of His Territories by Frederick Barbarossa.

When Frederick Barbarossa returned to Germany, in A. D. 1178, he determined to punish Henry the Lion for his defection. The complaints that arose on every side against Henry the Lion gave the Emperor the opportunity that he desired, and Frederick Barbarossa therefore summoned Henry to appear before the Diet at Worms. Henry refused to appear; and, with the sanction of the Diet, the Emperor put the refractory prince under the ban of the Empire, and declared his two duchies, Saxony and Bavaria, to be forfeited. A part of East Saxony was given to Bernhard of Anhalt, son of Albert the Bear; a portion of West Saxony was bestowed on Philip, Archbishop of Cologne, who was also granted ducal rights in these territories; and the duchy of Bavaria, greatly weakened by the separation of Styria, was conferred on Otho of Wittelsbach. The Wittelsbachs were devoted to the Hohenstaufen family, and afterwards received the Palatinate of the Rhine.

Subjugation and Humiliation of Henry the Lion by Frederick Barbarossa.

But Henry the Lion was only subdued after a bloody war, and withstood his foes for two years. Only when Frederick Barbarossa himself took the field against him was he thoroughly subdued. In A. D. 1181 Henry came to Erfurt, where the Emperor was holding a Diet, prostrated himself at the Emperor's feet, and humbly asked pardon of his sovereign. Greatly affected by the sight of his old friend so humbled, Frederick Barbarossa frankly forgave the head of the house of Guelf. The Emperor could not restore Henry's duchies of Saxony and Bavaria, but permitted him to retain for himself and his family his hereditary possessions of Brunswick and Luneburg. Henry agreed to live for three years at the court of his father-in-law, King Henry II. of England. During Henry's sojourn in England his wife gave birth to a son, from whom the present royal family of England is descended.

Frederick Barbarossa's Accidental Death in the Third Crusade.

Frederick Barbarossa had become venerable for his years, but his military ardor had not abated. Having subdued all his foes, he participated in the Third Crusade, A. D. 1189, along with Kings Richard the Lion-hearted of England and Philip Augustus of France, in order that he might end his heroic career in the same manner that he had commenced it. From this expedition the chivalrous Emperor never returned, and he never lived to reach Palestine, being drowned in crossing a small stream in Cilicia, in June, A. D. 1190.

Grief of His Subjects.

The affection which the German people bore Frederick Barbarossa was so strong that the tidings of his accidental death were at first received with incredulity, and then with an outburst of the most profound sorrow. In after years the German people looked back to this chivalrous Emperor as their greatest champion, and he still lives in the leg-

ends of the German nation. There arose a tradition that Frederick Barbarossa was not dead, but was only plunged with his knights into an enchanted sleep in a cavern of the Kyffhauser Berg (or hill), in Thuringia, where, armed *cap-a-pie*, they would remain until the ravens should cease flying around the mountain, when they would make their appearance and restore Germany to her former greatness.

Legend Concerning Him.

Frederick Barbarossa's son and successor, HENRY VI., crushed a new revolt of Henry the Lion, after which he went to Italy, where he was crowned Emperor. After the death of William II., the last Norman King of Naples and Sicily, Henry VI. desired to take possession of that kingdom, the inheritance of his Norman wife Constance; but the Neapolitan nobles, who dreaded Henry's ambition and avarice, opposed this project, and endeavored to place one of their own number, the brave Tancred, on the throne of Naples and Sicily. A war followed, in which Henry VI. subdued the Neapolitans, by the equipment of fresh armaments with ransom money which he obtained for the release of King Richard the Lion-hearted of England, and by the aid of the German Crusaders. After obtaining possession of Naples and Sicily he took a frightful revenge, filling the prisons with Neapolitan nobles and bishops, some of whom were blinded and impaled, while others were burned or buried alive. The plunder was conveyed to the Hohenstaufen castles by heavily-laden pack horses. Henry died suddenly in A. D. 1197, at the early age of thirty-two, leaving behind him a two-year-old son, who was intrusted to the guardianship of Pope Innocent III.

Henry VI., A D. 1190–1197.

Tancred of Naples.

Conquest of Naples by Henry VI.

His Cruel Revenge and Death.

The claims of the infant son of Henry VI. were disregarded by the German nobles, and the result was a disputed succession and a civil war of ten years in Germany. The Ghibellines elected a Hohenstaufen prince, PHILIP of Suabia, brother of Henry VI.; while the Guelfs chose OTHO IV., of Brunswick, son of Henry the Lion. Philip was acknowledged in the South of Germany, while Otho IV. was recognized in the North. During the ten years' civil war which followed, the greatest lawlessness and violence prevailed, and frightful ravages were committed, sixteen cathedrals and three hundred and fifty parishes with churches perishing in the flames. The assassination of Philip at Bamberg by the hasty Palsgrave, Otho of Wittelsbach, in A. D. 1208, restored peace for a short time. Otho IV. was now generally recognized as king throughout Germany, and the next year he proceeded to Rome, where he was crowned Emperor by Pope Innocent III.

Civil War.

Philip of Suabia and Otho IV, A.D. 1197–1215.

Philip's Assassination and Triumph of Otho IV.

Otho IV. Crowned Emperor.

Pope Innocent III. was a politic prince, and ranked next to Gregory VII. (Hildebrand) among the Popes. He acted on the principle that the Pope is superior to temporal princes—a principle almost universally acknowledged during the Middle Ages. He endeavored to per-

His Quarrel with Pope Innocent III.

Frederick II., A D. 1215–1250.

suade the Emperor Otho IV. to confirm all previous donations and renounce all claims to feudal rights in Rome and Central Italy. But the Emperor sought a quarrel with the Pope, invaded the estates of the Church in Tuscany, and marched into the dominions of the youthful Frederick II. of Sicily. Thereupon Pope Innocent III. excommunicated Otho IV. and pronounced his deposition, at the same time sending the young Frederick II. into Germany as a rival for the German and imperial crowns. The German princes obeyed the Pope's order by electing Frederick II. to the German throne; and after another civil war, and the defeat of Otho IV. and his allies, the Count of Flanders and King John of England, by King Philip Augustus of France in the battle of Bouvines, in A. D. 1214, Otho IV. retired to private life, and thus remained until his death at Brunswick in 1218.

Battle of Bouvines.

Coronations of Frederick II.

Frederick II.—the son of Henry VI. and the grandson of Frederick Barbarossa—was crowned King of Germany at Aix la Chappelle in 1215, and in 1220 he was crowned Emperor at Rome by Pope Honorius III.

Regency of His Son Henry.

Frederick II. soon became a powerful enemy of the Pope. He was absent from Germany for the first fifteen years of his reign. Upon leaving Germany he induced the German princes to elect his young son Henry King of Germany, and made him regent of the kingdom under the guardianship of Engelbert, Archbishop of Cologne.

Frederick II. and His Quarrels with the Pope.

A large part of the reign of Frederick II. concerns itself with Italian affairs. Though Frederick II. was of German blood, he was a Sicilian by birth, and was thus endowed by nature with certain qualities and habits of mind which did not belong to his Teutonic blood. He had been carefully educated in the wisdom of the Arabians, and entertained a friendly feeling towards the Mohammedans and the Oriental mode of life. His reign was a constant struggle between the papal and imperial powers. His position as King of Lombardy and King of Naples and Sicily threatened the existence of the Pope's temporal power, while his skeptical turn of mind and his liberal religious views menaced the authority of the Church. His bitter hatred of the Pope caused him much trouble in the end.

Beneficent Reign of Frederick II.

The first years of the reign of Frederick II. were the happiest. He was free to carry out his own policy in his own Kingdom of Sicily, which enjoyed a security and prosperity during his reign which it had not enjoyed under his predecessors. He established law and order, compelling the nobles to cease their lawlessness, and thus protecting the weak and helpless. He encouraged learning and the arts by founding the University of Naples, and by aiding those of Bologna and Salerno. The Italian language began to assume its modern form during his beneficent reign.

BARBAROSSA AS UMPIRE AT BENSANÇON

From the Painting by H. F. Plüddemann

His Quarrels with Popes Honorius III. and Gregory IX.

The Emperor's good understanding with Pope Honorius III. was soon disturbed by Frederick's delay to lead the Fifth Crusade to the Holy Land, which he had promised to do as the price of his coronation as Emperor. Honorius III. censured the Emperor for his tardiness. The next Pope, Gregory IX., pursued the same course, and excommunicated Frederick II. in 1227 for venturing to fall sick at the time that the Pope expected him to embark for the Holy Land. The Emperor treated the sentence of excommunication with utter contempt, and this so angered Gregory IX. that he threatened Frederick II. with still greater penalties in A. D. 1228. There was in Rome a powerful party devoted to the Emperor through gratitude for his generous assistance to them in a time of famine; and this party, indignant at the Pope's course toward the Emperor, drove Gregory IX. from Rome.

Frederick II. and the Fifth Crusade.

The Pope, who had excommunicated Frederick II. for his delay in leading the Fifth Crusade when he was ordered, now endeavored to prevent him from sailing when he was ready; but the Emperor disregarded the Pope's mandate, and proceeded on his expedition to Palestine, where he arrived in September, A. D. 1228. The animosity of Pope Gregory IX. pursued Frederick II. to the Holy Land, and arrayed the Knights Templars and the Knights of St. John, as well as the ecclesiastics, against the refractory Emperor. The two orders of knighthood absolutely refused to fight under the banner of Frederick II. and grossly insulted him. Nevertheless, the Emperor proceeded in his work, seized Jaffa, and entered into a treaty with Sultan Malek Kamel of Egypt, with whom he had long been on terms of friendship; thus obtaining Jerusalem, Nazareth and Bethlehem for the Christians.

His Excommunication by the Pope.

Frederick II. then proceeded to Jerusalem to complete his pilgrimage to the Holy Sepulcher. He had not arrived at the Holy City before the Archbishop of Cæsaréa appeared with instructions from the Patriarch of Jerusalem to declare the Emperor under excommunication and to place Jerusalem under an interdict. Even the Holy Sepulcher was under the ban of the Church. The pilgrims were forbidden to pray in that holiest of places, and prayers there delivered were pronounced unholy. No Christian rite could be celebrated before the Christian Emperor—a disgrace which was inflicted in the face of all Mohammedans.

Under the Ban of the Church.

As soon as Frederick II. arrived at Jerusalem he visited the Church of the Holy Sepulcher. The church was silent, and not a priest made his appearance. During the Emperor's stay in Jerusalem no mass was celebrated in the city or its suburbs. An English Dominican monk, named Walter, performed but one service on Sunday morning. Frederick II. again proceeded in great pomp, and in all his imperial apparel, to the Church of the Holy Sepulcher. No prelate or priest of

Frederick's Coronation as King of Jerusalem.

the Church of Jerusalem was there who ventured to utter a blessing. The Archbishops of Palermo and Capua were present, but do not appear to have participated in the ceremony. The imperial crown was placed on the high altar. The Emperor took it up with his own hands, and put it on his head, thus crowning himself King of Jerusalem without being consecrated by the Church.

His Quarrel with Pope Gregory IX., Renewed.

Frederick II. returned to Europe in A. D. 1229, finding that the Pope had revived the Lombard League against him, and was even seeking to instigate all Europe in a crusade for his overthrow. As soon as the Emperor arrived in Italy he recovered all the towns which the Lombard League had conquered. Pope Gregory IX., not intimidated by these reverses, renewed the excommunication against Frederick II., and declared his subjects absolved from their allegiance. The Emperor then marched toward Rome; whereupon negotiations were opened, which ended in the Peace of San Germano, concluded between Frederick II., Pope Gregory IX. and the Lombard League, August, A. D. 1230, the Pope freeing the Emperor from the excommunication.

Peace of San Germano.

Persecution of the Paterini.

Frederick II. then aided the Pope in persecuting the religious sect of the *Paterini*, which had ventured to dispute the extraordinary power claimed by the priests of the Roman Church. Jealous of the Emperor's great influence in Italy, Pope Gregory IX. soon brought about another war with him by instigating the Milanese to encourage the Emperor's son Henry, King of the Romans, to rebel against his father.

Prince Henry's Revolt.

Disorders and Lawlessness in Germany.

The Emperor's absence from Germany during the first fifteen years of his reign encouraged the German nobles to make the authority of the regent, his son Henry, King of the Romans, only nominal, and also to increase their own power to such an extent that they became almost independent of their sovereign. Private wars distracted every part of Germany, and robbery and violence again prevailed all over the country. As Henry grew to manhood he gave constant evidence that he did not inherit his father's noble qualities. He was mean, rash and violent; and it was his father's long absence from Germany that encouraged him to rebel, and to declare, to the German princes assembled at Boppart in A. D. 1234, his intention to seize the German throne. The Emperor Frederick II. returned to Germany the next year, and easily crushed his son's rebellion. Henry attempted to poison his father, but was imprisoned in Apulia for the remainder of his life.

Subjugation and Imprisonment of Prince Henry.

Private Warfare Outlawed.

During this visit to Germany, the Emperor Frederick II. married the princess Isabella, the sister of King Henry III. of England. He held a great Diet at Mayence, where he endeavored to abolish private wars by declaring all such strifes unlawful, except in cases where justice could not be otherwise obtained. He also established an *imperial tribunal*, to try all causes not affecting princes of the Empire. This

Imperial Tribunal.

Regency of Prince Conrad.

was a good beginning, but Frederick II. left Germany again too soon to complete his work. In A. D. 1236 he returned to Italy, where his struggle with the Pope required his presence; leaving his son Conrad in charge of the German kingdom.

Mongol Invasion.

A few years afterward the very existence of the German nation was imperiled by a destructive inundation of Asiatic hordes into Europe. Vast hosts of Mongols, or Moguls—of whom we shall speak hereafter—had overrun the vast plains of Russia and Poland. They burst into Germany in A. D. 1241, and defeated and killed Duke Henry of Lower Silesia in a terrible battle at Liegnitz, the Silesian force being entirely cut to pieces; but so terrible was the slaughter of the victorious Mongols on this occasion that they retired from Germany in utter dismay, turning southward into Hungary.

Battle of Liegnitz.

Lombard Revolt.

Frederick II. gave his Kingdom of Naples and Sicily a new code of laws, and encouraged trade, industry and poetry. But when he endeavored to force the Lombard cities to fulfill the stipulations of the Peace of Constance, and to discharge the regalian rights pertaining to him as Emperor, a furious war broke out in Northern Italy. Aided by the Ghibellines, under the cruel tyrant, Ezzelino da Romano, in Padua, Vicenza and Verona, and supported by his faithful Saracens whom he had settled in Southern Italy, Frederick II. defeated the allied army of the Lombards in the battle of Corte Nuova, A. D. 1237. He captured the Podesta of Milan, who was a son of the Doge of Venice, and put him to death in punishment for his rebellion. This execution so enraged the Venetians that they joined the Lombard League against the Emperor, while the Genoese likewise espoused the Guelfic cause.

Battle of Corte Nuova.

Revolts of Venice and Genoa.

Frederick II. and Pope Gregory IX.

When Frederick II. pursued his conquest with severity and threatened Milan with a fate similar to that which it had experienced from Frederick Barbarossa, and when he presented his illegitimate son, the brave and handsome Enzio, with the island Kingdom of Sardinia, Pope Gregory IX. again excommunicated the Emperor, espoused the cause of the Lombard cities, and sought to raise up enemies on all sides against Frederick II., accusing the free-thinking Emperor of being an enemy to the Christian religion and a secret Mohammedan. The Emperor retorted these accusations in some violent written replies, repaying invective with invective; but, as public opinion was on the Pope's side, the Church triumphed in the quarrel.

Pope Gregory IX. and the Council of Rome.

Pope Gregory IX. summoned a general council of the Church at Rome to ratify the excommunication; but the Pisans captured the Genoese fleet which conveyed the English and French bishops, some of whom were drowned and others taken prisoners during the battle—a circumstance which prevented the council from accomplishing anything.

Frederick II. and Pope Innocent IV.

After the death of Pope Gregory IX., in A. D. 1241, at the age of almost a century, the position of the Emperor Frederick II. appeared to become more favorable; but Innocent IV., who became Pope in A. D. 1243, was the Emperor's bitter personal enemy. Frederick II. at once acknowledged Innocent IV. as Pope and made offers for a reconciliation; but Innocent IV., who was resolved to crush the Emperor, refused to accept any settlement of the quarrel except the unconditional submission of Frederick II. In order to place himself beyond the Emperor's reach, Innocent IV. fled from Rome and took refuge in the free city of Lyons, which was not yet a part of the Kingdom of France.

Hostility of the Other European Sovereigns to the Pope.

The Pope's arrogance, and the bitter and cruel hostility which he manifested towards the Emperor Frederick II., disgusted the great sovereigns of Europe. Even St. Louis, King of France, refused to permit Innocent IV. to take up his residence in the French dominions. James I., King of Aragon, courteously declined to receive the Pope in his kingdom. When King Henry III. of England was appealed to for this purpose he bluntly replied: "We have already suffered too much from the usuries and simonies of Rome; we do not want the Pope to pillage us." Henry III. had only a short time before been obliged to dismiss the papal legate, at the demand of the English barons, with the hearty exclamation: "The devil take thee away to hell!"

Alarm of European Monarchs at the Pope's Assumptions.

The crowned heads of Europe were alarmed by the growing power and the apparent objective of the Pope, who asserted authority over all the kingdoms of the world, the right to set up and pull down whom he pleased, and whose claims were well expressed by the following remark of Innocent IV.: "We are no mere man: we have the place of God upon earth!" Innocent IV. was not content with merely asserting these ideas. He promptly proceeded to enforce them by the power of the sword.

Pope Innocent IV. and the Council of Lyons.

Thus being obliged by the coldness of the great powers of Europe to remain at Lyons, Pope Innocent IV. summoned a council of the Church at that city. This council convened in June, A. D. 1245, but was very far from representing the entire Church. The Pope accused the Emperor Frederick II. of many crimes, and charged him with being false to the Church, a believer in Mohammedanism, and a blasphemer of God. The learned jurisconsult, Thaddeus of Suessa, ably and fearlessly defended Frederick II.; but the animosity of Innocent IV. prevailed over every form of law and justice recognized by the Church. The council excommunicated the Emperor, declared him to have forfeited his dominions, absolved his subjects from their allegiance to him, threatened his adherents with the ban of the Church, urged the Pope to appoint a new king for Sicily, and ordered the German princes to

Excommunication of Emperor Frederick II.

elect a new king for Germany. When the Emperor was informed of the council's decision he exclaimed haughtily: "I hold my crown of God alone; neither the Pope, the council nor the devil shall rend it from me!"

Civil War in Italy and Germany

The civil war between the Guelfs and the Ghibellines was now renewed with the most desperate fury in Italy and Germany. The Emperor's enemies conspired against his life, and he was in constant peril everywhere. His enemies seemed desperate and unscrupulous enough to use any means, and ready to sanction any plot. Constant and secret dangers removed all restraint from Frederick II.'s character, and he became suspicious and wantonly cruel. The Emperor's partisans injured his cause with the Northern Italians by their severities, and he speedily lost ground among them.

The Pope's Failure to Find a Rival Emperor.

The Pope's efforts to find a new King of Germany and Emperor did not succeed as he had hoped they would. None of the crowned heads of Europe would assist in his war against Frederick II. by accepting the imperial crown and thus acknowledging his assumed right to deprive Frederick II. of that crown.

The Papal and Imperial Parties in Germany.

In Germany the prelates and clergy espoused the Pope's cause and won over many of the princes and nobles who desired to increase their own power at the expense of the imperial authority. But the Emperor had still a large following of patriotic nobles, who loved their country better than their party; and the German cities, now growing more wealthy and powerful, sustained Frederick II. almost unanimously.

Henry Raspe, of Thuringia, A D. 1246–1247.

The papal party finally elected Henry Raspe, Landgrave of Thuringia, to the German throne, A. D. 1246; but he was never acknowledged sovereign, and was defeated at Ulm, in Suabia, by Conrad, son of Frederick II., soon after which he died powerless and forsaken in Wartburg castle, A. D. 1247.

Count William of Holland, and Conrad IV., A.D. 1247–1254.

After some trouble in finding a candidate who would accept the German throne, the Pope caused Count William of Holland, a youth of twenty, to be proclaimed Emperor. William was strongest in the North of Germany, where he allied himself with the Welfs; but Conrad IV., the son of Frederick II., prevailed in Southern Germany. The imperial towns and most of the German nobles sided with Conrad IV.

Hostilities in Italy.

In the meantime hostilities between the Guelfs and the Ghibellines raged with terrible fury in Italy. The fiery temperament of the vindictive Italians caused deeds of frightful atrocity. Family was arrayed against family, city against city, and neither age nor rank refrained from the conflict. Frederick II. was at first successful, crushing the revolt in Naples and Sicily, and throwing his enemies wholly on the defensive. But monstrous cruelties were perpetrated by Ezze-

lino, the leader of the Ghibelline nobility, in his attacks upon the Guelfic cities in Northern Italy, until he met with his merited punishment in the prison of Milan. These excesses neutralized Frederick's success in Southern Italy, and in A. D. 1247 Parma revolted from Frederick II., who failed in his attempts to take the city, though he besieged it for many months. His illegitimate son Frederick captured Florence; but his son Enzio was taken prisoner by the Bolognese, who kept the fair-haired king in captivity for the remaining twenty years of his life.

Peter de Vinea, Chancellor of Emperor Frederick II.

Peter de Vinea, born in A. D. 1190, raised himself by his eloquence and legal knowledge from a low condition to the office of Chancellor to the Emperor Frederick II., who reposed such confidence in him that his influence was unbounded. The Emperor's courtiers, envious of Peter's exalted station, managed by means of forged letters to make Frederick II. believe that his Chancellor held a secret and treasonable intercourse with the Pope. Because of this supposed crime, Peter de Vinea was sentenced to be paraded through all the cities of the Kingdom of Naples, and to be tormented to death.

His Tortures and Suicide.

The fallen Chancellor was taken to San Miniato, in Tuscany, where his eyes were put out. He was led through the villages, mounted on an ass; while a crier shouted: "Behold Master Peter de Vinea, the chief councilor of the Emperor, who betrayed his master to the Pope! See what he has gained by his dealings. Well may he say, 'How high was I once, and how low am I brought!'" But Peter was determined that the Emperor should not have the pleasure of parading him through the towns of Apulia. On the way to Pisa, the unfortunate Chancellor dashed out his brains against a pillar to which he had been chained (A. D. 1249). The great Florentine poet, Dante, who was born soon after this tragedy, and who lived near its scene, has vindicated the good name of the great statesman who had been so falsely and unjustly accused:

> "I swear
> That never faith I broke to my liege-lord,
> Who merited such honor; and of you,
> If any to the world indeed return,
> Clear he from wrong my memory, that lies
> Yet prostrate under envy's cruel blow."

Illness and Death of Frederick II.

Frederick II. for a long time maintained his lofty attitude, and the number of his enemies only increased his courage. But worn out by the constant struggle which the animosity of Popes Gregory IX. and Innocent IV. had forced upon him in both Italy and Germany, the great Emperor's heart finally broke; and he died in the arms of his beloved son Manfred, in Southern Italy, in the fifty-sixth year of his age, A. D. 1250. Having confessed, he received absolution from the

faithful Archbishop of Palermo. His body was carried in state to Palermo, where it was interred in a magnificent tomb. This was perfectly proper, as he had always been one of the wisest and best rulers that Sicily ever had.

Qualities of Frederick II.

Frederick II. had a cultivated mind, and possessed great aptitude for science and poetry; while he was likewise distinguished for his courage, heroism and personal beauty. Surrounded by pomp, luxury, and all sorts of pleasures, he would have had all pretensions to happiness had not his free-thinking spirit resisted the Church, and had he only learned to moderate his desires and control his passions. The malice of his enemies pursued him to the grave, describing him as dying unreconciled to the Church, miserable, deserted, and conscious of the desertion of all; while his son Manfred was maliciously accused of smothering him with a pillow.

Malice of His Enemies.

End of the Imperial Power in Italy.

The great power of the German Emperors in Italy ended with the death of Frederick II. The towns of Northern Italy soon became strong enough to resist the occasional efforts of the Emperors to control them, and in Southern Italy the power of the Emperors was soon obtained by other claimants. The successors of Frederick II. were so occupied with German affairs that they were unable to devote much attention to Italy.

Quarrel of Pope Innocent IV. with Conrad IV. and Manfred.

Upon hearing of the death of Frederick II., Pope Innocent IV. returned to Rome in triumph. He declared Naples and Sicily to be lapsed papal fiefs, and excommunicated Conrad IV. and Manfred, the sons of Frederick II., who desired to take possession of their paternal inheritance. Conrad IV. soon died; but his chivalrous half-brother, Manfred, defended Southern Italy with his German and Saracen troops so gallantly and successfully that most of the towns tendered their allegiance, and the Guelfic troops were obliged to retreat into the papal territories. Distress at this circumstance hastened the death of Pope Innocent IV.

Pope Alexander IV., Charles of Anjou and Manfred.

The next Pope, Alexander IV., pursued his predecessor's policy toward the Hohenstaufen dynasty, whom he resolved to deprive of Naples and Sicily at any price. He accordingly conferred that beautiful kingdom as a papal fief on the energetic and tyrannical Duke Charles of Anjou, brother of St. Louis, King of France, on condition that he should conquer it by Guelfic aid and with French troops, and should pay an annual tribute to the papal court. Manfred valiantly defended his paternal inheritance, but was defeated and slain by the army of Charles of Anjou in the bloody battle of Benevento, A. D. 1266. His remains were interred in a simple grave, to which every one of his soldiers contributed a stone.

Battle of Benevento.

Naples and Sicily under Charles of Anjou.

The battle of Benevento broke the power of the Ghibellines, and Naples and Sicily fell into the possession of the stern and victorious Charles of Anjou, who made the unfortunate kingdom feel all the miseries of conquest. The Ghibellines were punished with death, imprisonment and exile, and their possessions were divided among the French and Guelfic soldiers.

Conradine in Italy.

The oppressed Ghibellines now called Conradine, the youngest son of Conrad IV., from Germany into Italy. This prince possessed the lofty spirit and heroic courage of his illustrious ancestors. He went to Italy for the purpose of recovering the Hohenstaufen inheritance, with the aid of his youthful friend, Frederick of Baden, and a few faithful adherents. He was joyfully welcomed by the Ghibellines, and marched triumphantly through Northern and Central Italy, putting the Pope to flight, and entering the Kingdom of Naples. He won the battle of Scurcola, but his over-hasty advance caused his defeat by the troops of Charles of Anjou, who were watching in ambuscade. His troops were killed or dispersed; and Conradine himself was betrayed into the power of Charles of Anjou, who beheaded him and his faithful friend, Frederick of Baden, at Naples.

His Defeat and Execution by Charles of Anjou.

Fate of the Other Hohenstaufen Princes.

The few remaining Hohenstaufen princes likewise experienced a cruel fate. King Enzio died in prison at Bologna, as already noticed. The cruel Charles of Anjou permitted Manfred's sons to end their lives in prison; and Margaret, the daughter of Frederick II., was ill-treated and threatened with death by her husband, Albert the Uncourteous, of Thuringia, so that she fled by night from the Wartburg castle. In her agony at her separation from her two sons, she bit one of them in the cheek while embracing him, so that he retained the mark and was called Frederick the Bitten.

Conrad IV., A.D. 1250–1254.

Pope Alexander IV. died A. D. 1261, and was succeeded by Urban IV., a Frenchman. Upon the death of Frederick II., in A. D. 1250, his son Conrad IV. succeeded him as King of Germany. In consequence of the unscrupulous efforts of Popes Innocent IV. and Alexander IV., Germany was in such a condition of anarchy that Conrad IV. found it a hard task to accomplish anything for his kingdom. After the death of Frederick II. the imperial authority had become only nominal, and private wars and the violence of the nobles imperiled life and property throughout Germany. Conrad IV. had to maintain a hard fight for his crown. His death in A. D. 1254, in the midst of the struggle, ended the Hohenstaufen dynasty in Germany.

Anarchy in Germany.

Private Wars.

End of the Hohenstaufen Dynasty.

Count William of Holland, A.D. 1250–1256.

The death of Conrad IV. left William of Holland the sole King of Germany. He was considered of little importance by either party; and his death in A. D. 1256, in a war with the Frislanders, left the German princes free to choose a new king. The chief candidates for

the German throne on this occasion were two foreign princes—RICHARD OF CORNWALL, brother of King Henry III. of England, and ALFONSO THE WISE, King of Castile—both of whom bribed the electors. The party headed by the Archbishop of Cologne chose Richard of Cornwall, while the party led by the Archbishop of Treves elected Alfonso the Wise. Richard came to Germany and was crowned at Aix la Chapelle, but he only visited the country three times thereafter, and took no interest in its affairs; while Alfonso never set foot in the kingdom.

Richard of Cornwall and King Alfonso the Wise of Castile, A. D. 1256–1271

This period, when Germany was virtually without a sovereign, is called the *Interregnum*, and constitutes the darkest period of German history. There being no central government in the land, violence and lawlessness prevailed throughout the country, and the strong alone could obtain justice. The nobles and the knights degenerated into marauders and robbers. No traveler was safe without the protection of an armed escort, and only within the strong walls of the towns did industry venture to engage in its accustomed pursuits. The princes and bishops occupied the Interregnum in enlarging their territories and possessing themselves of privileges, while the knights and vassals waylaid and plundered the weak and defenseless. They led a wild and predatory life in their castles, which were built upon the banks of navigable streams or near frequented highways, as is shown by the ruins. They dragged travelers into their dungeons for the purpose of extorting a heavy ransom. They plundered the wagons of the mercantile towns, and behind their strong walls they bade defiance to the powerless laws and tribunals.

The Interregnum, A.D. 1256–1273.

Lawless Nobles and Robber Knights.

This deplorable condition of affairs in Germany was ended by the death of Richard of Cornwall in A. D. 1271. Until this event the Pope had intentionally held aloof from German affairs, as the vacancy of the imperial throne gave needed relief from long and wearying struggle. It now became evident to His Holiness that the condition of anarchy which prevailed in Germany was detrimental to the Church as well as to the Empire, because the papal revenues could not be collected without the aid of the imperial power. Finally Pope Gregory X. notified the Electors, the German princes who chose the king, that if they did not elect a proper person for King of Germany he would himself appoint one. The Pope's threat had its effect, and the Interregnum ended in A. D. 1273.

The Pope's Non-interference.

Threat of Pope Gregory X.

The period just ended was one of great importance in the history of the Germano-Roman Empire and of the Roman Catholic Church, being near the middle of the struggle between Christendom and Islam as exemplified in the Crusades, and also in the midst of the long struggle between the Popes and the Emperors.

Importance of This Period.

SECTION II.—HAPSBURG AND LUXEMBURG DYNASTIES AND THE CHURCH (A. D. 1273–1519).

Kind of King of Germany Wanted.

During the Interregnum many of the German princes and bishops had assumed the rights of sovereignty. To retain what they had gained, the Electors sought to prevent the choice of any prince to the German throne whose lands and vassals rendered him formidable; while they also required an energetic man, who should be able to restrain the prevailing lawlessness and to break the threatening power of Ottocar, King of Bohemia, and Duke of Moravia and Austria. All these qualities were possessed by Count Rudolf of Hapsburg, who was accordingly elected King of Germany through the influence of the Archbishop of Mayence, with whom he had been on friendly terms (A. D. 1273).

Rudolf of Hapsburg, A.D. 1273–1291.

His Good Qualities.

The choice of Rudolf of Hapsburg was a wise one, as that prince was a brave and resolute man, fully alive to the evils from which Germany was suffering, and anxious to put an end to them. His moderate hereditary estates in Alsace did not alarm the German princes; his courage, strength and skill had long been proved and acknowledged; but his piety and the inclination he had always manifested to the Church was what especially contributed to his election. Therefore, when Rudolf of Hapsburg pledged his word that he would respect the property and rights of the Church and the interests of the German princes, his election was generally recognized, and Alfonso the Wise of Castile was induced to abdicate.

His Election Recognized.

His Abandonment of Italy.

Rudolf had likewise won the Pope's support by a solemn pledge not to interfere with Charles of Anjou in Sicily or in Tuscany, and somewhat later he recognized the Pope's territorial sovereignty by relinquishing to Pope Nicholas III. the imperial claims over Rome and the bequest of the Countess Matilda. Thus strengthened, Rudolf of Hapsburg devoted himself with vigor to the task of restoring order throughout Germany.

Rudolf's War with Ottocar, King of Bohemia.

Ottocar, King of Bohemia, who had added Austria, Styria, Carinthia and Carniola to his native kingdom, alone refused to acknowledge or do homage to Rudolf, hoping to be himself elected King of Germany. But Rudolf declared war against him in 1276, marched into his territories with the aid of his Swiss and Alsatians, and with the assistance of the German princes whom he had connected with his dynasty by marriages with his numerous daughters, and forced Ottocar to relinquish Austria and the neighboring territories and to do homage for his Bohemian crown. As Ottocar renewed the war upon Rudolf's retirement, Rudolf again took the field against him; and in the great and

Battle of Marchfeld.

decisive battle of Marchfeld, in 1278, Ottocar was defeated and slain.

Rudolf as Founder of the Royal Austrian House of Hapsburg

Only Bohemia and Moravia were left to Ottocar's son Wenceslas. With the consent of the German princes, Rudolf conferred Austria, Styria, Carniola and Carinthia on his sons Albert and Rudolf. Soon afterward he bestowed Carinthia on his father-in-law, Count Meinhard of Tyrol; leaving Albert in possession of Austria, Styria and Carniola. In this way Rudolph became the founder of the illustrious royal Austrian House of Hapsburg, which has ever since possessed and ruled the Austrian territories.

His Restoration of the Royal Power in Germany.

As before said, Rudolf of Hapsburg was elevated to the German throne when the royal and imperial authority had been almost totally wiped out. His task was to restore it and to reëstablish the supremacy of the civil law. As he avoided all interference in the affairs of Italy, he was able to devote his entire energies to Germany. After a series of campaigns and battles, mainly in Suabia, against the rapacious Eberhard of Wurtemberg, and in Burgundy, he finally succeeded in recovering many of the fiefs, lands, privileges and revenues that had been alienated from the German crown.

His Restoration of Order in Germany.

But Rudolf's greatest service was in securing the peace of Germany and in restoring law and order to the distracted country. He traversed the whole kingdom with his army, and called the lawless nobles and robber knights to a severe account. In Thuringia alone he caused twenty-nine knights to be executed, and destroyed sixty castles. In Franconia and on the Rhine he destroyed more than seventy fortresses in a single year.

His Good Character and Death.

Rudolf won the effection of the German people by his simplicity, virtue and honesty, as well as by his intelligence, his impartial justice and his military achievements. He was only deficient in the poetical magnanimity of the Hohenstaufen. He died at Gomersheim, in September, A. D. 1291, at the age of seventy-four, during one of his military expeditions for the suppression of lawlessness, and was buried at Spire.

Adolf of Nassau, A.D. 1291–1298.

Just before his death, Rudolf of Hapsburg had endeavored to have his son Albert elected to the German throne, but had failed because the German nobles regarded the revenues of the kingdom as insufficient for the maintenance of two sovereigns. After Rudolf's death, the Electors chose the insignificant Count Adolf of Nassau to the throne of Germany, at the instigation of Gerhard, Archbishop of Mayence, Adolf's cousin, from fear of the power of the Hapsburgs, and from dislike for Rudolf's cruel and avaricious son Albert.

Adolf's Ambition.

Like Rudolf of Hapsburg, Adolf of Nassau endeavored to enlarge his own small territories, but was unable to do much against the nobles.

who opposed him and sought to limit his powers. He formed an alliance with King Edward I. of England, who supplied him with a large sum of money on condition that he should make war on France. Adolf used this money in purchasing Thuringia and Misnia from the worthless Landgrave, Albert the Uncourteous; but this disgraceful transaction involved Adolf in a war with Albert's sons, Frederick the Bitten and Diezman, whom their degenerate father had sought to deprive of their inheritance, and who were sustained in their refusal by their vassals and by many of the German princes.

His Purchase of Thuringia and Misnia and Resultant War.

Adolf's Deposition.

Albert I., of Austria, A.D. 1298–1308.

Adolf's Defeat and Death.

The public disgust at Adolf's dishonest proceeding, and the discontent of the Electors of the Palatinate, Mayence, Treves and Cologne, whom Adolf had deprived of their unjustly acquired tolls of the Rhine, had aided in forming a party favorable to Adolf's rival, Albert of Austria, the son of Rudolf of Hapsburg, who was accordingly chosen to the German throne. Adolf resisted this action, but Albert marched to the Rhine and defeated his dethroned rival in the battle of Göllheim, near Worms, A. D. 1298; Adolf himself being hurled from his horse by Albert's lance and slain in the tumult. His remains were interred in the cathedral of Spire; and ALBERT I., of Austria, became undisputed King of Germany, A. D. 1298.

German Colonization Eastward.

Before proceeding with the events of Albert's reign, we will take a general review of the condition of Germany during the thirteenth century. For some time the Germans had been making steady progress eastward. They had acquired Brandenburg in the preceding century, and since then they had come in possession of Holstein, Mecklenburg, Pomerania and Lower Silesia; all of which had been Slavonic countries, except Holstein, which was Scandinavian. All these had now became Germanized by the slow progress of colonization. A monk named Christian began preaching Christianity in Prussia about the beginning of the thirteenth century. He was resisted by the heathen Prussians, who were also a Slavonic people, and who held fast to their pagan belief, in consequence of which a Crusade was preached against them.

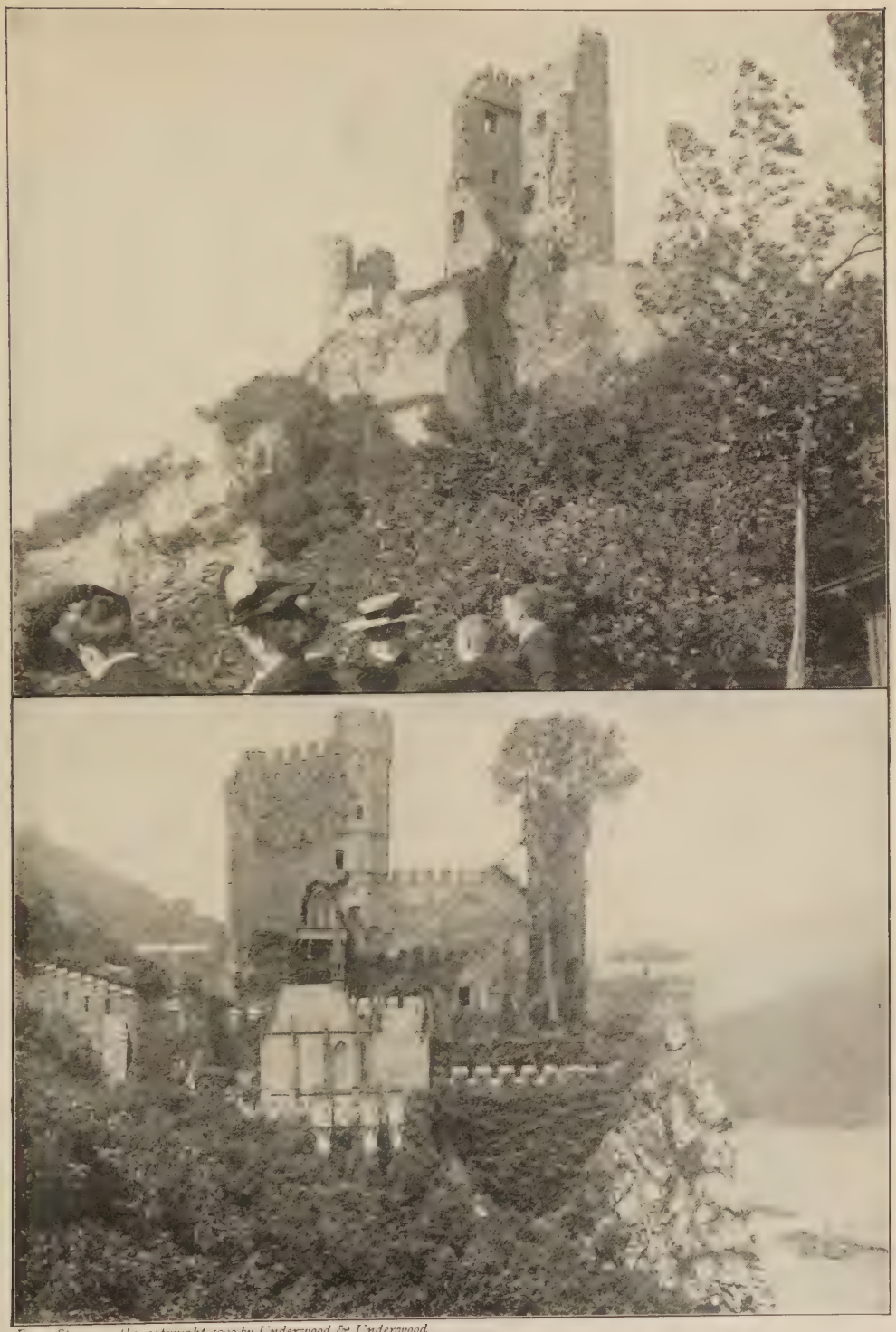
Christian Crusade in Prussia.

Teutonic Knights.

Knights of the Sword.

About A. D. 1230, during the reign of Frederick II., the *Teutonic Knights* came to Prussia and commenced its conquest. In 1237 the *Knights of the Sword*, another German order, which had already conquered Livonia, became united with the Teutonic Knights. Many warriors from every portion of Europe joined the order of the Teutonic Knights, to aid in the conquest of Prussia. In 1245 the Teutonic Knights founded the city of Königsburg, which was named in honor of King Ottocar of Bohemia, who had taken part in the Crusade; and by 1260 most of Prussia was conquered. A great revolt of the native Prussians broke out in that year, but it was suppressed after a severe struggle. German colonies were settled in Prussia, and founded the

Founding of Konigsburg and Other Towns in Prussia.



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CASTLES ON THE RHINE

Upper : Drachenfels, 900 feet above the river. Built in fourteenth century; destroyed by the Swedes in seventeenth century

Lower : Rheinstein, 260 feet above the river. Built in thirteenth century; restored in 1823-29

cities of Culm, Elbing, Thorn and others. In 1309 the Teutonic Knights made Marienburg their headquarters, and held Prussia in subjection, while it gradually became Christianized and Germanized, the Teutonic order conducting the government of the conquered country, while the native peasantry sank into the condition of serfs.

Prussia Christianized and Germanized

The absence of the Emperors from Germany, and the long struggle with the Popes, resulted in the serious loss of their power as Kings of Germany. By neglecting their duties as German kings, and exerting their main efforts for the Empire, the Emperors allowed the German princes to seize gradually all the privileges of the German crown and to render themselves practically independent. The Hohenstaufen sovereigns deliberately relinquished many of their most valuable rights as Kings of Germany, for the purpose of acquiring some immediate advantage as Roman Emperors. Denmark, Poland and Hungary became independent kingdoms, and Burgundy was slowly absorbed by France.

Decline of the Power of the German King.

Loss of Denmark, Poland, Hungary and Burgundy

The German princes had always refused to permit the German crown to be made hereditary, and in the thirteenth century a change was made in the mode of electing the sovereign. This privilege was vested in seven *Electors*—three spiritual princes and four secular princes. The three spiritual Electors were the Archbishops of Mayence, Cologne and Treves—all in the West of Germany. The four secular princes were the Duke of Saxony, the Margrave of Brandenburg, the Palsgrave of the Rhine, and the King of Bohemia. These seven Electors ranked above all the other German princes, and constituted a separate college in the German Diet. The Pope claimed the right to revise the action of the Electors and to reject any candidate whom he considered unsuitable, and this right was usually acknowledged. The King of Germany had the right to the imperial crown, which could be conferred on him by the Pope only; and thus was derived the Pope's claim.

The Seven Electors.

Three Spiritual Electors.

Four Secular Electors.

The Pope's Sanction.

Another important feature of this period was the growth of the German towns. As the great duchies fell into decay the towns that had been dependent upon them became independent, managing their affairs in their own way, but acknowledging the Emperor's supremacy, and therefore called *free imperial cities*. The deputies of these cities at length constituted a third college in the imperial Diet, and voted on an equality with the Electors and the princes. The free cities usually supported the king's authority, but were almost always at war with the German nobles and bishops. For their mutual protection against these enemies, the free cities organized leagues or confederations among themselves; the most celebrated of which were the *League of the Rhine* in Western Germany, and the *Hanseatic League* in Northern Germany.

Free Imperial Cities.

Leagues of Cities.

League of the Rhine.

Hanseatic League.

The League of the Rhine embraced the cities of Worms, Spire, Mayence, Strasburg, Basle and seventy others. The Hanseatic League comprised Hamburg, Bremen, Lübeck, Stralsund, Riga and about eighty other commercial cities, and maintained fleets and armies. It was formed in 1241 for the protection of the commerce of the Northern seas against piracy. It possessed the entire trade of the Baltic and a large part of that of the North Sea. Its principal foreign depots were London, in England; Bruges, in Flanders; Bergen, in Norway; and Novgorod, in Russia. The Hanseatic military and naval forces frequently defeated the armies and fleets of the Northern kings; and the Kings of England and France accorded the league a marked degree of respect. For a long time the Hanse towns carried on an active commerce with England, the export trade of which country was wholly conducted by the Hanseatic merchants. The English called these merchants *Easterlings;* whence the word *Sterling*, as still applied to English money. Hanseatic commerce extended even to Northern Asia and to China, by way of Novgorod.

Easterlings and Sterling.

The Fehmgerichte in Westphalia.

Germany had no uniform code of laws. In the thirteenth century the laws of Saxony were codified by Eike of Repgord, and those of Suabia were codified by a Suabian priest. In Westphalia the violence of the times gave rise to a singular class of courts of justice, called *Fehmgerichte.* These were tribunals which convened in open day, usually under some tree; but the proceedings were kept secret. Only such crimes as were punishable with death were tried in these courts. If an accused person was condemned he was instantly hanged. Any one who did not appear after having been summoned three times was assumed to be guilty, and was certain to be put to death sooner or later.

Appeals to the Fehmgerichte.

In those lawless times the weak and oppressed were glad to find any court which gave them some opportunity of obtaining justice. Accordingly appeals began to be made to the Fehmgerichte from every portion of Germany. Finally men of free birth, from any part of the kingdom, were permitted to become free judges; and many thousands of all classes availed themselves of the privilege. For some time the Fehmgerichte did real good; as the German nobles who did not care for their Emperor-King trembled when they received the summons of some free judge to appear before a secret tribunal at a certain date. But as the Fehmgerichte grew in power they were frequently reckless and unjust; and many, particularly the clergy, denounced them in the strongest terms. These courts lost almost all their power in the sixteenth century, but traces of them remained long afterwards among the peasantry of Westphalia.

Degeneracy of These Courts.

Cologne Cathedral.

The Hohenstaufen era was noted for a marked revival of architecture in Germany, of which the lately-finished cathedral of Cologne is

a noble specimen. This was also the epoch when those love singers, the *Minnesingers*, or *Minnesänger*, flourished. Several of the Hohenstaufen Emperors, particularly Frederick II., were poets. The most noted of the Minnesingers were Heinrich von Waldeck, Wolfram von Eschenbach, Gottfried von Strassburg and Walther von der Vogelweide.

Minnesingers.

Pope Boniface VIII. strenuously endeavored to uphold the papal power; and, in endeavoring to prevent the taxation of the French clergy, he became involved in a violent quarrel with King Philip the Fair of France, who treated the Pope's bulls of excommunication with contempt and imprisoned the papal legate in France, and whose officers in Rome made the Pope a prisoner. Boniface died of vexation at his humiliation, shortly after his forcible release by the Romans. His second successor, Clement V.—who had been Archbishop of Bordeaux, and who had been elected Pope through the influence of King Philip the Fair—removed to Avignon, in the South of France, where the Popes resided seventy-two years (1305–1377), entirely under French influence.

Quarrel of Pope Boniface VIII. with King Philip the Fair, of France.

Pope Clement V.

Popes at Avignon.

Albert I. was the first of the Austrian Kings of Germany. He lacked all the qualities which had made his father, Rudolf of Hapsburg, so beloved by the German people, and sought to maintain his authority by extreme harshness and tyranny. He was an energetic but a severe sovereign, and his inflexible disposition could be read in his gloomy and one-eyed visage. He was also more selfish and ambitious than his father, and desirous of extending his estates and advancing the fortunes of his family. He therefore sought to gain possession of Bohemia and the county of Holland. His son Rudolf was King of Bohemia for a few months, but that kingdom at length passed from his family. He also tried to dispossess the Landgrave Frederick of Thuringia of his territory, but failed in that undertaking.

Character of Albert I.

Albert's aggressions aroused the hostility of those whom he attempted to rob for his own aggrandizement. Feared and hated, he was finally assassinated by his nephew John of Suabia, at Windisch on the Reuss, near Hapsburg castle, May, 1308, after a reign of ten years, just as he was preparing to subdue the free Swiss. John expiated his deed in a cloister; but Albert's wife and daughter took a terrible revenge upon the three nobles who aided John of Suabia in the assassination—Wart, Balm and Eschenbach—and upon all their friends and relatives.

Assassination of Albert I.

Revenge Therefor.

Albert's unpopularity prevented the Electors from choosing his successor from the Austrian House of Hapsburg; and Count Henry of Luxemburg was elected King of Germany with the title of Henry VII. With the consent of the Bohemian states, the new king married his son

Henry VII., of Luxemburg, A D. 1308–1313.

His Son John, King of Bohemia.

John to Elizabeth, the granddaughter of King Ottocar; and in this way John became King of Bohemia, the crown of which long remained under the Luxemburg dynasty.

Henry VII. in Italy.

In 1310 Henry VII. led an expedition to Italy, where he was joyfully welcomed by the oppressed Ghibellines; and the great poet Dante, of Florence, celebrated his appearance by a Latin essay called *Monarchy* and by songs that were soon sung by everybody. Henry VII. was crowned King of Lombardy at Milan in 1311. He collected with rigor the taxes that were due in the towns of Northern Italy, and met with an honorable reception in the Ghibelline city of Pisa.

Italian Revolt.

But notwithstanding all his efforts to assume the character of a prince desirous of reconciliation, the Guelfs and the haughty Florence under the leadership of King Robert the Wise of Naples rose against Henry VII. for cause. The Pope himself opposed him, and the King of Naples threw a garrison into Rome. Henry VII. forced this garrison to retire into the Leonine City, where they held the Church of St. Peter against him. Thus cut off from the great cathedral, Henry VII. was crowned Emperor in the Church of St. John Lateran, June 29, A. D. 1312.

Henry VII. Crowned Emperor.

His Death and Its Result.

Henry VII. now endeavored to crush the Guelfic revolt, and raised an army, which he led into Tuscany with the intention of chastising Florence; but the fatal air of Rome had so undermined his constitution that he died on his march, August 24, A. D. 1313. His body was taken to Pisa, and was buried in the Campo Santo, or churchyard of that city. This event changed the situation. The Germans, deprived of their sovereign, disbanded and recrossed the Alps; and the Guelfs were again in the ascendency.

His Good Character

Henry VII. died in the flower of his age, and was the last of the German Emperors who exercised any real authority in Italy. He was a man of great abilities and of noble character. The Guelf Villani wrote of him as follows: "He was a man never depressed by adversity; never in prosperity elated with pride or intoxicated with joy."

His Successors.

The successors of Henry VII. were not Emperors in the sense in which that title can be employed to describe him and his predecessors. They were mainly the leaders of a faction of the Italian people, and some of them were never crowned Emperor.

Civil War.

The death of Henry VII. was followed by another civil war in Germany, occasioned by a disputed succession. Some of the Electors chose Duke Louis of Bavaria for King of Germany; while others adhered to Duke Frederick the Fair of Austria, the eldest son of King Albert I. Louis was crowned at Aix la Chapelle, and Frederick the Fair went through the same ceremony at Bonn. Thus Germany had two rival kings, both of whom appealed to the sword, and thus

Louis of Bavaria and Frederick the Fair of Austria.

inaugurated a sanguinary civil war, which lasted eight years (A. D. 1314–1322).

The Two Parties.

As a general rule, the towns supported Louis, while the nobles sustained Frederick the Fair. Frederick's cause found an energetic and vigorous leader in his brother Leopold. Notwithstanding the superior strength of the Austrian party, Louis, who was an excellent general, maintained his own cause successfully, particularly after Leopold's force had been weakened by the war with the Swiss. The civil war was decided in favor of Louis by the decisive battle of Mühldorf in A. D. 1322, where Frederick the Fair was defeated and taken prisoner by his rival's skillful general, Seyfried Schwepperman. Frederick was confined in captivity in the castle of Trausnitz, in the Upper Palatinate.

Battle of Muhldorf.

Quarrel of Louis with Pope John XXII.

Notwithstanding Frederick's defeat and capture, his brother Leopold and other princes continued the war and attempted a new election. They were sustained by Pope John XXII., who had quarreled with Louis for aiding the Ghibellines of Milan and assuming the title of King of the Romans without the Pope's sanction. Louis haughtily asserted that he owed his dignity to the German Electors and not to the Pope, whereupon the Pope excommunicated him and laid all those parts of Germany that supported him under an interdict. Anxious to restore peace to Germany, Louis liberated his rival in A. D. 1325, upon the condition that he should renounce all claims to the German crown and persuade his party to consent to peace.

Frederick's Release by Louis.

Frederick's Voluntary Return to Captivity.

As neither the Pope nor Frederick's brother Leopold would be bound by Frederick's promise or listen to the proposal for peace, Frederick, true to his word, returned to captivity, as he had promised to do before his liberation provided he failed to persuade his partisans to make peace. Frederick's honorable conduct so affected his chivalrous competitor that the two rivals thereafter lived in the closest friendship, and Louis would have consented even to share the German crown with Frederick the Fair, but the Electors would not consent to such an arrangement.

Its Result.

Quarrel between Louis and Pope John XXII.

The death of Leopold of Austria in 1326 did not put an end to the struggle, as the contest continued with increased animosity between Louis and Pope John XXII. In 1327 Louis led an expedition to Italy to obtain the Lombard and imperial crowns. He remained in that country three years. He was at first quite successful, as he was supported by the Ghibellines. He proceeded to Rome, declared Pope John XXII. deposed, and caused an Antipope to be elected with the title of Nicholas V., who crowned him Emperor. As the former adherents of Louis refused to aid him by sending subsidies to pay his mercenary troops, he exacted heavy levies of money from the Italian

Antipope Nicholas V.

towns; whereupon the Romans revolted, and Louis fled, taking the Antipope Nicholas V. with him.

German Hostility to the Pope.

After Louis had returned to Germany he took measures to make that country entirely independent of the papal dominion. The Germans were ready to support their king in spite of the Pope, whose interference in Germany they had learned to dread. The German cities especially were hostile to the Pope, who was thus deprived of the popular sympathy and support which had made his predecessors strong in Germany against Henry IV. and Frederick II.

Declaration of the Diet of Frankfort as to the Emperor's Independence of the Pope.

At the Diet convened at Frankfort in 1338 the German princes sustained the cause of Louis against the Pope. The Electors assembled at Rense, on the Rhine, and all of them, but the blind King John of Bohemia, who was jealous of the Bavarian dynasty, and who was also a bitter personal enemy of Louis, united in a solemn declaration that the King of Germany, or Emperor of the Romans, derived his power and his title solely from the choice of the Electors of Germany, and not from the Pope in any sense. This declaration of the Electors was accepted by the Diet and proclaimed by the Emperor, and became a part of the law of the land; Louis declaring that the election of Emperor was directly derived from God, that the Pope's confirmation only lowered the dignity of the Empire, and that all who thought otherwise were guilty of high treason. This law established the independence of the German Empire.

Louis and Pope Benedict XII.

Pope Benedict XII., the successor of John XXII., renewed the excommunication of the Emperor Louis the Bavarian, and resolved on pronouncing his deposition and seeking to find a successor for him. The German princes and people were ready to sustain their king against the Pope, but Louis soon lost the esteem of the German princes by his avarice and his desire to enlarge his territories, which led him into many unjust and violent measures.

The Tyrol and Margaret Maultasch.

The Emperor Louis had elevated his son Louis to the dignity of Margrave of Brandenburg in 1323; and he also desired to confer the Tyrol upon the same son, but he was unable to do so, because the Tyrol belonged to Margaret Maultasch, who was already married to a son of King John of Bohemia. Louis, however, did not scruple to dissolve this marriage and to grant to Margaret a dispensation to marry his son Louis. In all Roman Catholic countries marriage is considered a sacrament, the Pope alone being able to dissolve it or to grant a dispensation for a second marriage during the life of a first partner. In attacking a right which all regarded as vested in the Pope, Louis shocked the consciences of his subjects and alienated many of his best adherents, while his open efforts to enrich and aggrandize his own family aroused the jealousy of the German nobles.

Her Marriage Dissolved

Deposition of Emperor Louis the Bavarian.

This feeling was increased when, upon the death of Count William IV. of Holland, Louis granted the counties of Holland, Zealand and Hennegan in fief to his own son William. When the Electors were convened in 1344 they gave significant expression of their discontent. In 1346 Pope Clement VI. pronounced the deposition of the Emperor. Louis had so thoroughly alienated his subjects that the Electors readily took advantage of the Pope's action as a pretext to get rid of their obnoxious sovereign. They therefore elected the Margrave Charles of Moravia, son of King John of Bohemia, to the German throne, with the title of Charles IV. (A. D. 1346).

Charles IV., of Bohemia, A.D. 1346–1378.

Crowned at Bonn.

Louis exerted all his energies to preserve his crown. At the head of his army he visited the imperial free cities, and satisfied himself of their loyalty. As Charles IV. was unable to obtain admittance into Aix la Chapelle or Cologne, he was crowned King of Germany at Bonn, in the presence of a few faithful knights. After the death of Louis from apoplexy in the midst of a great boar hunt, October 11, A. D. 1347, Charles IV. became sovereign; and, though the Bavarians at first made some opposition, he was acknowledged undisputed sovereign in 1349. Thus ended the long contest between Guelfs and Ghibellines —between the Popes and the German Emperors.

Death of Louis.

End of the Contest of Guelfs and Ghibellines.

Hereditary Lands of the German Kings.

Until the reign of Louis the Bavarian the German kings had generally relinquished their hereditary lands upon receiving the crown. Louis retained his lands; and this course was adopted by his successors, because the revenues of the German kingdom were inadequate to maintain the royal dignity, the kings being obliged to depend upon their private resources. This change had a bad effect, because it made the German king more careful of his own individual possessions than of the kingdom in general.

Origin of the Swiss Republic.

In the meantime a series of events occurred which led to the founding of the Swiss Republic. This series of events began during the reign of Albert I., of Austria, whose severity led to the rise of the Helvetic Confederation. Helvetia, or Switzerland, was a component part of the German Empire, and was under the protection of Prefects, who there exercised the highest offices of jurisdiction. These offices were at first filled by the rich and powerful Dukes of Zähringen, who founded Berne and other Swiss cantons. After the extinction of the ducal house of Zähringen, the Counts of Savoy in the South and the Counts of Hapsburg in the North raised themselves to a position above the other feudal lords by their power and possessions. The Counts of Hapsburg were in possession of the Landgravate of Aargau, and, in the name of the German Empire, exercised the functions of protectors over the three forest cantons of Uri, Schwyz and Unterwalden, situated in the Alpine mountain region on the borders of Lake Lucerne.

Power of the Counts of Hapsburg.

Three Forest Cantons, Uri, Schwyz and Unterwalden.

The people of Uri, Schwyz and Unterwalden spoke the German language, and acknowledged allegiance only to the German king, but always maintained their freedom. Like many districts of the German Empire, these three forest cantons formed a league for their mutual protection. This league may have existed from a very early date, but the earliest written compact between them bears the date of August 1, A. D. 1291.

Tyranny of the Counts of Hapsburg.

The Counts of Hapsburg held large estates within the limits of the three forest cantons, and when they became Dukes of Austria and Kings of Germany they endeavored to reduce Uri, Schwyz and Unterwalden under the ducal sovereignty of Austria. To further this purpose, Albert I., King of Germany and Duke of Austria, gave permission to the Vögte, or governors, who ruled the Hapsburg lands, to enforce the laws of the German Empire over the free forest cantons, and to oppress the simple, warlike and freedom-loving mountaineers.

League of Rutli.

This oppression caused the three forest cantons to form the *League of Rutli*, under the leadership of Walther Furst, Werner Stauffacher and Arnold Melchtal, who met at Rutli and swore under the open canopy of heaven to live and die in defense of freedom and country. Each of these three leaders chose ten associates from his own canton, and the thirty-three repeated the oath of freedom and then proceeded to incite their countrymen to revolt against the tyranny of the Hapsburg dynasty.

Legend of William Tell and Gessler.

The tyrannical measures of Albert I. drove the Swiss mountaineers to desperation. In connection with this oppression is a famous legend, now generally discredited, though it had been for a long time accepted as a historical fact. This is the story of William Tell and Gessler—one of the best-known legends of the Middle Ages. According to this legend, Gessler was one of the tyrannical Austrian governors expelled by the Swiss. He placed the ducal cap of Austria in the market-place of Altorf, and ordered all who passed to bow to the cap, in token of submission. William Tell refused to bow to the cap, and was thereupon imprisoned. Being a good archer, Tell was promised his freedom if he would shoot an apple from his son's head. Tell hit the apple and received his freedom, saying to Gessler: "Had I killed my son, I would have killed you." Tell is said to have been at once seized by order of the enraged tyrant, and conveyed across the Lake Lucerne in a boat in which were Gessler and his attendants; but a violent storm having arisen during the passage, Tell, who was a skillful boatman, was released in order that he might conduct the boat in safety to the shore; and no sooner had the shore been reached than Tell leaped from the boat, and soon afterward dispatched an arrow into the tyrant's heart, killing him instantly.

The revolted Swiss mountaineers seized the Austrian bailiffs and officers and expelled them from the country. Albert I. instantly marched against the Swiss confederates, but was assassinated on his march by his nephew John of Suabia, as already noticed. His son Leopold, the next Duke of Austria, took the field against the Swiss; but his army was overwhelmingly defeated by a few hundred Swiss mountaineers in the narrow pass of Morgarten, November, A. D. 1315. The flower of the Austrian nobility perished in this battle, beneath the clubs of the sturdy and freedom-loving peasants of Uri, Schwyz and Unterwalden.

The Swiss Revolt.

Battle of Morgarten.

Thenceforth the power of the Hapsburgs declined in Switzerland; and Uri, Schwyz and Unterwalden maintained their position as distinct members of the German Empire. By the accession of the town of Lucerne, in 1332, the entire shore of Lake Lucerne came into the power of the Helvetic Confederation, which was soon joined by the towns of Berne, Zurich, Zug, Glarus and many others. Thus strengthened, the Helvetic Confederation increased its power by seizing or buying the lands of the neighboring nobles whenever occasion required. The confederacy assumed the title of the *Old League of High Germany;* and its members were called *Eidgenossen*, "Confederates." Gradually the name which properly belonged to the canton of Schwyz spread over the whole of Helvetia, which thus came to be called *Switzerland,* and the people *Swiss.*

Growth of the Helvetic Confederation.

Charles IV. was crowned King of Germany a second time at Aix la Chapelle in A. D. 1349, and in 1355 he proceeded to Rome and was crowned Emperor by Pope Innocent VI. Ten years later—A. D. 1365—he was crowned King of Burgundy at Arles. He was a sagacious monarch, intent on his own interests and the aggrandizement of his family, the Luxemburg dynasty; and he regarded money and property as of more value than honor or fame.

Charles IV. Crowned Emperor.

Crowned King of Burgundy.

Through Charles IV. the imperial power lost all respect in Italy, where he allowed the imperial privileges to be purchased by the towns and the princes. Though the contests between Guelfs and Ghibellines ceased in Italy, they only gave place to contentions between the princes and the free towns concerning the extension of their respective territories. Mercenary troops, called Condottieri, were now employed instead of the earlier militia; and the enterprising leaders of these bands often controlled the fate of states and obtained possession of their governments. The efforts of Charles IV. in Germany were likewise mainly directed to the gratification of his avarice and lust of territory He sold the privileges and liberties of the imperial free towns; he granted letters of nobility for money; and he annexed some of the other German territories to his hereditary possessions.

Loss of Imperial Power in Italy.

Condottieri.

Avarice of Charles IV.

Great Plague of 1349.

In the beginning of the reign of Charles IV., Germany was ravaged by a dreadful plague, which spread its desolations throughout Europe. It broke out in 1349 and carried hundreds of thousands to their graves in a short time. The Jews were generally suspected of causing the pestilence by poisoning the springs and rivers, and multitudes of them were massacred by the ignorant and fanatical mob. King Charles IV. and the Church were obliged to resort to severe measures to protect the unoffending Jews from persecution by the bigoted people.

Persecution of the Jews.

Wise Reign of Charles IV. as King of Bohemia.

As King of Bohemia, Charles IV. was a good sovereign, and under his beneficent rule that kingdom attained its highest prosperity. He summoned artists and artisans from other parts of Germany and from Italy into Bohemia; and in that country under his benign reign Carlsbad and other towns and a number of villages were founded, agriculture and trade were encouraged, roads and bridges were planned, and heaths and forests were brought under cultivation. With the Pope's consent and with the coöperation of the Italian poet Petrarch, Charles IV. founded the University of Prague, the first German university, which soon had from five thousand to seven thousand students, and at once became celebrated throughout Europe. He made Prague, the capital of Bohemia, a most splendid city.

University of Prague Founded.

Bohemian Territories Enlarged.

Charles IV. greatly enlarged the territories of the Bohemian crown. He obtained the Upper Palatinate through his wife as her dowry; and he annexed all Silesia and Lower Lusatia to Bohemia, and also the Mark of Brandenburg, which he obtained from the ducal house of Bavaria.

Golden Bull.

In A. D. 1356 Charles IV. granted the first imperial code of laws, known as the *Golden Bull*, which defined the manner of electing the King of Germany by the seven Electors. The King of Bohemia was made the first secular Elector, and the Archbishop of Mayence was assigned the duty of convening the electoral college, which was to meet at Frankfort. The king was to be chosen by a majority of the votes of the Electors, and was to be crowned at Aix la Chapelle. The Electors were made independent of the German crown by being declared absolute sovereigns within their own respective territories. There was to be no appeal from their courts unless they refused to dispense justice. Their persons were declared sacred. Thus the authority of the German crown was almost totally destroyed, and the German sovereign was thenceforth to be little more than a mere figure-head of the Empire, the German princes thus becoming more powerful than the sovereign himself.

Faustrecht, or Club Law.

The imperial authority had fallen into utter decay, and confusion and lawlessness prevailed throughout Germany. The laws concerning disturbance of the public peace were almost wholly disregarded; and the only law which prevailed was the *Faustrecht*, or club law, which

called upon every man to take care of himself, alliances being formed to do this more effectually.

Wenceslas, A.D. 1378–1400.

The Emperor Charles IV. died in A. D. 1378, and was succeeded by his son WENCESLAS, who had been chosen King of the Romans by the Electors in 1376. He was a bad monarch to both Bohemia and Germany. He was a rude, hot-headed man, of cruel temper, and addicted to drink and to low pleasures. He led a dissolute life in Bohemia, devoting himself to hunting, quarreling with his nobles and with the clergy, and rendering himself hateful and contemptible by his cruelty and by his barbarous treatment of the Vicar Nepomuk, whom he ordered to be thrown from the bridge of Prague into the Moldau.

His Bad Character.

Lawlessness and Violence in Germany.

Wenceslas so thoroughly neglected the German Empire that the country fell into the same confusion and violence that prevailed during the Interregnum. The German nobles became wholly lawless. The towns in Suabia, in Franconia and on the Rhine were obliged to form the *Suabian League*, similar to the League of the Rhine, the Hanseatic League and the Helvetic Confederation, in order to preserve the peace of the country and to defend themselves against the rapacious nobles. The lawless knights, who gained their living by plunder and highway robbery, and who were menaced by the Suabian League, formed leagues in opposition to those of their enemies. These leagues of knights were the *Schlegler*, the *Löwen* and the *Hornerbund*.

Suabian League.

The Schleger, Lowen and Hornerbund.

Wars of Leagues

Great Cities' War.

The leagues of the knights and those of the towns were constantly engaged in war with each other, until finally the murder of the Bishop of Salzburg by a Bavarian duke gave rise to the *Great Cities' War*, which caused extreme distress in Southern Germany. The citizens were victorious in Bavaria; the courage of the Nuremburgers rendered the fortune of the war dubious in Franconia; but in Suabia, where the valiant enemy of the towns, Eberhard the Grumbler, of Wurtemberg, headed the nobility, the burghers suffered great loss near Döffingen, and yielded to the iron ranks of the knights of Hesse and the Palatinate at Worms and at Frankfort. The indolent Wenceslas cared nothing for Germany, and made no effort to restore order and peace throughout the Empire, nor to win back the lost privileges of the German crown.

Growth of the Duchy of Austria.

Another Duke Leopold of Austria and the Swiss.

In the meantime the duchy of Austria had been rapidly growing in power and importance. Carinthia was annexed to it in 1335, and the Tyrol in 1369, the latter coming into the possession of the Austrian duke by bequest from Margaret Maultasch. These provinces were ever afterward a portion of the Austrian territories. Duke Leopold of Austria—nephew of the Duke Leopold who was vanquished by the Swiss in the battle of Morgarten in 1315—now determined to profit by the confusion prevalent in Germany by attempting to conquer the

freedom-loving Swiss, because some towns belonging to him had been admitted into the Helvetic Confederation. He was joined by many princes and nobles who were jealous of the growing power of the Swiss.

Battle of Sempach.

Duke Leopold led several thousand of the flower of the Austrian and German chivalry, with a host of armed nobles, into Switzerland, A. D. 1386. Fourteen hundred Swiss confederates were posted on the heights of Sempach. Finding it impossible for his cavalry to force the narrow mountain pass, the Austrian duke ordered his knights to dismount and storm it on foot. They were rapidly surrounding the Swiss confederates with a living wall of steel, when one of the Swiss leaders, Arnold von Winkelried, a gallant knight of Unterwalden, resolved to sacrifice his life for his country, crying to his countrymen: "Dear brothers, I will open a way for you; take care of my wife and children!" Then rushing upon the bristling lances of the Austrian and German chivalry, he cried: "Make way for liberty!" Throwing himself on the iron-clad ranks of the Austrian knights, and seizing as many of their lances as he could grasp and plunging the points of them into his body, he fell dead; but his gallant plunge "made a path" for his countrymen into the ranks of the foe, and they rushed upon the Austrians and killed or routed their whole force, Duke Leopold and six hundred and fifty-six of his nobles being among the slain, A. D. 1386.

Patriotic Devotion of Arnold Winkelried.

Battle of Nafels.

Two years after the glorious victory of the Swiss at Sempach, the people of Glarus achieved another victory over the Austrians at Näfels (A. D. 1388). These two brilliant Swiss triumphs forced Austria to respect the independence of the Swiss cantons, and the Helvetic Confederation was likewise permitted to retain the towns that had voluntarily joined that league; but the independence of Switzerland was not fully established until 1499, and was not formally acknowledged until 1648.

Swiss Independence.

Deposition of Wenceslas.

The inability of King Wenceslas to restore law and order in Germany induced the Electors in a Diet at Lahnstein, in A. D. 1400, to declare him dethroned, "because he had not aided the peace of the Church, had sold the title of duke to the rich and crafty Visconti in Milan, had not maintained the public peace, and had governed tyrannically and with cruelty in Bohemia." The Electors had been instigated to this proceeding by Pope Boniface IX., one of the two rival pontiffs who at that time divided the dominion of the Church. Wenceslas desired to depose both Popes, and Boniface IX. struck this decisive blow at him in retaliation.

Pope Boniface IX.

Rupert of the Palatinate, A.D. 1400–1410.

The Electors chose RUPERT OF THE PALATINATE to succeed Wenceslas as King of Germany, A. D. 1400. The new sovereign was the grandson of that Rupert who had founded the University of Heidel-

berg in the year of the battle of Sempach, A. D. 1386. The deposed Wenceslas was still supported by a strong party; and Rupert was not properly aided by his adherents, so that he was but little more than nominal king. In spite of many good qualities, Rupert was not equal to the difficulties of his station. He was obliged to grant to the German princes and estates the right to form confederations and to maintain the public peace in their own way. When he endeavored to restore Milan to the Germano-Roman Empire he was defeated by the Italian Condottieri, who had discovered a more scientific system of tactics. He likewise failed in his efforts to restore tranquillity to the Church. Rupert died A. D. 1410.

His Failures.

Germany was now divided by a disputed succession. Some of the Electors chose JOBST, Margrave of Moravia, to the German throne; while others elected SIGISMUND, Margrave of Brandenburg and King of Hungary, a brother of Wenceslas, and therefore belonging to the Luxemburg dynasty. Jobst died soon afterwards, and Sigismund was thereupon unanimously chosen king by the Electors. He had displayed some good qualities, and high hopes were entertained of him by the German people; but he disappointed their expectations, as we shall presently see.

Sigismund, of Bohemia and Hungary, A.D. 1410–1437.

His Rival Jobst.

When Sigismund ascended the German throne the Church had been divided for a quarter of a century. Pope Gregory XI., a Frenchman, had reëstablished the papal residence in Rome by moving there from Avignon in 1377, thus yielding to the general desire of Christendom outside of France. Gregory XI. died the following year (A. D. 1378), the very year of the death of the Emperor Charles IV. and the accession of Wenceslas. The conclave of cardinals convened at the Vatican immediately after his death to elect a new Pope. As there was no Roman acceptable for the papal office, the conclave chose a Neapolitan, who took the title of Urban VI. The French cardinals, indignant because the new Pope refused to return to Avignon, left him. Another election was held, at which Robert of Geneva was chosen Antipope, under the name of Clement VII. (A. D. 1378). The Antipope went with the French cardinals to Avignon. His election was sustained by France, and thus began the *Great Schism*, which divided the whole of the Western, or Roman Church.

Pope Gregory XI.

Rome and Avignon.

Pope Urban VI.

Antipope Clement VII.

The Great Schism.

A council of the Church was convened at Pisa in 1409 to heal the schism in the Papacy. This council pronounced the deposition of the two reigning Popes, Benedict XIII. at Avignon and Gregory XII. at Rome, and declared the Holy See vacant. The council then elected a new Pope, who took the name of Alexander V. Instead of putting an end to the schism, this election only complicated matters, as the two deposed Popes each had supporters, so that there were now three Popes

Council of Pisa, A.D. 1409.

Deposition of the Two Rival Popes.

Election of Pope Alexander V.

ruling at the same time, each of whom excommunicated the other two. The damaging truths which the three rival Popes told of each other destroyed men's reverence for the Church; and several great Reformers—John Wycliffe in England and John Huss in Bohemia—preached against the abuses in the Church and the vices of the clergy.

Two Great Reformers.

John Wycliffe, the English Reformer.

John Wycliffe was one of the most celebrated men of this period. He was a native Englishman and a professor in Oxford University. He was a learned man, well versed in scholastic subtleties. He taught that the Pope was no longer Head of the Church, and that Church councils were unnecessary. He rejected many articles of faith, such as confession and transubstantiation, and also objected to the celibacy of the clergy. He died in 1384.

John Huss, the Bohemian Reformer.

Jerome Faulfisch.

John Huss, who was a professor in the University of Prague, was the most famous of Wycliffe's many adherents. He was excommunicated by the Pope, but in spite of this he was daily gaining new followers, one of the most zealous of whom was Jerome Faulfisch, a Bohemian nobleman, better known as Jerome of Prague. The Germans in the University of Prague favored the doctrines of the new Reformers, and were therefore curtailed of their privileges by Wenceslas, who was still King of Bohemia, though he had been deprived of the German crown, and who changed the constitution of the university in 1409, giving three votes to the Bohemians in the university, and only one each to the Saxons, the Bavarians and the Poles. Enraged at this arbitrary action, the German professors and students left the institution, and thus brought about the founding of several other German universities, one of which was that of Leipsic, in Saxony.

King Wenceslas and the German Students at Prague.

Huss's Bold Preaching.

The Reformers were now in the ascendency at Prague, and Huss was made Rector of the university. He assumed a bolder tone, and commenced denouncing in the strongest terms the abuses in the Church and the doctrines which he considered false. His boldness aroused the hostility of the clergy, but nevertheless he persisted in teaching his doctrines and grew bolder in his denunciations of the errors of the Church. The Pope at length excommunicated Huss and laid the city of Prague under an interdict until it should consent to expel the bold Reformer. The Bohemians refused to expel Huss, as he taught them what they considered a purer faith than that of the Roman Church, and because his principles were fast arousing in them a national spirit, which all men perceived would sooner or later result in the separation of Church and State, if not checked.

His Excommunication by the Pope.

His Support by the Bohemians.

Council of Constance, A.D. 1414–1418.

At the earnest solicitation of Sigismund, Pope John XXIII. convened a great council of the Church at Constance, in Suabia, to heal the schism in the Papacy and to reform the Church of its corruption. The *Council of Constance* was in session four years (A. D. 1414–

1418); and was attended by the Emperor Sigismund and Pope John XXIII., and also by eighteen thousand clergymen and by learned men from all the universities of Europe—in all about one hundred and fifty thousand persons.

Depositions of the three Rival Popes.

The first act of the Council of Constance was to depose the three rival Popes or to persuade them to abdicate. John XXIII. promised to resign; but broke his promise by fleeing in disguise, during a tournament, to Schaffhausen, in Switzerland, and taking refuge in the castle of Duke Frederick of Austria, where he recalled his abdication. Thereupon the council declared itself independent of and superior to the Pope, and joined Sigismund in punishing the refractory. Sigismund outlawed Duke Frederick of Austria and ordered the Swiss confederates to make war on him. Berne therefore attacked the Austrian duke, and was joined in the struggle by the other Swiss cantons. Duke Frederick was obliged to make peace, and Sigismund restored to him most of his estates. The Swiss refused to relinquish what they had conquered. Among their conquests was Aargau, which contained the celebrated Hapsburg castle, the hereditary seat of the Dukes of Austria.

Pope John XXIII., Duke Frederick of Austria, Emperor Sigismund and the Swiss.

Martin V. Elected Pope.

In the Council of Constance the French and Germans desired first to reform the Church, and then elect a new Pope; but their plans were frustrated by the Italians, who insisted upon an election of Pope before all other things. The opinion of the Italians prevailed, and Martin V. was chosen to the papal chair. He was a man of moderation, and sought during his pontificate to remedy many of the abuses which had crept into the Church during the Great Schism.

Wycliffe's Writings Burned.

After putting an end to the schism in the Papacy, the Council of Constance directed its efforts against heresy. The dead Wycliffe's doctrines were condemned and his writings were sentenced to the flames. His remains were cast into the Severn.

John Huss and Jerome of Prague Summoned before the Council.

John Huss was summoned to appear before the council to answer the charge of heresy. Being provided with an imperial safe-conduct by Sigismund, Huss and his friend, Jerome of Prague, proceeded to Constance, against the advice of their friends, meeting with evidences of popular sympathy all along the route.

Martyrdom of Huss and Jerome.

When Huss arrived at Constance the Pope received him graciously. Said the pontiff: "If John Huss had slain my brother, I would not permit, as far as is in my power, any harm to be done to him in Constance." A few days later the great Bohemian Reformer was seized and cast into prison. Several conferences were held, and Huss explained his doctrine, but the result was unsatisfactory. The council desired him to recant, but he persistently refused, as did Jerome likewise. Finally Huss was degraded from the priesthood, and both he

and Jerome were handed over to the imperial power. Both were condemned to be burned to death.

Huss's Heroic Fortitude at the Stake.

Huss perished at the stake in 1415. When the fire was raging around him he was again asked to recant, but he refused, and suffered his horrible torture with the most heroic fortitude. The Council of Constance was of the opinion that promises made to heretics were not binding; and Sigismund made no effort to save the great Reformer, notwithstanding his solemn promise of safety to Huss. Roman Catholic writers urge in palliation of Sigismund's conduct on this occasion that Huss and Jerome were put to death by the civil power, not only for the crime of heresy, but likewise for preaching sedition and for high treason. Jerome was martyred the year after Huss (A. D. 1416).

Hussite War, A.D. 1416–1434.

The martyrdom of Huss and Jerome aroused a storm of indignation in Bohemia and led to a furious religious war of eighteen years (A. D. 1416–1434), during which the Hussites took a terrible revenge on the Empire and on the Church for the cruel death of the two great Reformers. The cup, which, according to the views of Huss, was not to be withheld from the laity, was carried before the Hussite armies as the symbol of their cause; for which reason they were called *Utraquists* and *Calixtines*. A heavy vengeance was inflicted upon the priests who refused to administer the cup. Vainly did the Pope fulminate an interdict against the Hussites, whose numbers increased daily. They stormed the town-house of Prague and murdered the counselors, which so enraged the old King Wenceslas, who was still sovereign of Bohemia, that he died of apoplexy (A. D. 1419).

Hussite Vengeance.

Death of King Wenceslas.

Bohemian Resistance to Sigismund.

Sigismund, as the brother of Wenceslas, was the heir to the Bohemian crown, and at once proceeded to take possession thereof. Instead of seeking to conciliate the Hussites, Sigismund arrayed them in a determined body in opposition to him by ordering a general crusade against them. The whole Bohemian nation rose in arms to prevent the bigoted monarch from taking possession of the kingdom. Their armies were led by the valiant John Ziska, a great military genius. Vainly did Sigismund lead three imperial armies against the Hussites. His troops fled in dismay before the wild fury of the enraged people. The Hussites burned the Bohemian churches and convents, and carried their ravages into the neighboring countries. The name of Ziska, who became blind during the war, was a terror to the enemies of the Hussites, and he led his followers from victory to victory.

Hussite Victories under John Ziska.

Hussite Victories under the Two Procopiuses.

After Ziska's death, in A. D. 1424, the Hussite armies were led by Procopius, a blind priest, who also proved a great general and a formidable foe to the German Empire and the Roman Church. He drove back the imperial armies which endeavored to conquer Bohemia, after

MARTYRDOM OF JOHN HUSS

From the Painting by C. F. Lessing

which the Hussites under Procopius the Great and Procopius the Little ravaged Saxony and extorted tribute from Brandenburg and Bavaria.

Sigismund's Negotiations.

Finding that force was useless, Sigismund undertook to negotiate with the Hussites, and his action was sustained by the Council of Basle, which convened in A. D. 1431. The Hussites were then divided into two parties—the *Calixtines*, or *Utraquists*, who were willing to return to the Church on condition of being permitted to receive the cup in the Lord's Supper and preaching in their own language; and the *Taborites*, who desired a complete separation from the Roman Church.

Calixtines and Taborites.

Dissensions between these Hussite Parties.

Being granted their demand, the Calixtines returned to the Church in 1433; whereupon they were attacked by the Taborites, who considered the Calixtines traitors to the Hussite cause; but the Taborites were decisively defeated near Prague in 1434, and the two Procopiuses were killed. Sigismund then ratified the treaty that had been made between the council and the Calixtines, and succeeded in bringing about a peace by the dexterity of his Chancellor, Schlick; whereupon he was acknowledged King of Bohemia (A. D. 1434), thus ending the famous *Hussite War*.

End of the Hussite War.

Sigismund's Treachery.

Sigismund did not remain faithful to the treaty. After being crowned he sought to put down the Calixtines and to restore the former Roman worship. The glory of Bohemia was humbled in the dust. Several decades later a small party of the former Hussites separated from the Church and formed a separate sect, since known as the *Bohemian and Moravian Brethren*, who have been described as "poor, scripture-proof and peaceful."

Bohemian and Moravian Brethren.

Frederick of Hohenzollern and the Mark of Brandenburg.

In 1415 Frederick, Landgrave of Hohenzollern, bought the Mark of Brandenburg from King Sigismund, and received the dignity of an imperial Elector with his new dominions, which ever afterwards remained under the Hohenzollern dynasty, which later occupied the thrones of Prussia and the German Empire. Sigismund, who was now King of Germany, King of Hungary and King of Bohemia, was crowned Emperor in 1433, and died in 1437.

Sigismund Crowned Emperor.

Albert II., of Austria, A. D. 1438–1439.

The male line of the Luxemburg dynasty expired with Sigismund, who was succeeded as King of Bohemia and King of Hungary by his son-in-law Albert II., Duke of Austria. In 1438—the year after Sigismund's death—ALBERT II. was chosen King of Germany, and thenceforth the German throne was occupied by the Hapsburg-Austrian dynasty until the end of the Germano-Roman Empire in 1806, with the brief intermission of a few years after the failure of the male line in 1740. Albert II. was a well-disposed and energetic sovereign, but he was unable to effect anything of importance during his short reign of less than two years (A. D. 1438–1439). He died suddenly in a campaign against the Turks in 1439.

Austrian House of Hapsburg.

Frederick III., A. D. 1440–1493.

In 1440 Duke Frederick of Styria, the nephew of Albert II., was chosen King of Germany with the title of FREDERICK III. The new sovereign was endowed with domestic virtues, but lacked energy and possessed slender talents for government. The revenues of the German crown were inadequate to his acting with decision in anything, and the different states comprising the German Empire looked coldly upon any measure which did not directly affect themselves.

Council of Basle, A.D. 1431–1449.

The Council of Basle, which had been summoned by Pope Martin V. just before his death in 1431, was still sitting, and remained in session eighteen years (A. D. 1431–1449). The council was convened to settle the disputes of the Hussites. It opened with but a small attendance of prelates, March 3, 1431. When this was known, Pope Eugenius IV. ordered the council to dissolve, and convoked another at Bologna, in Italy. The members of the Council of Basle refused to leave, and summoned the Pope to appear before them. When he refused they elected an Antipope. The Emperor Sigismund offered his services as mediator, and his services were accepted. Some time afterward the Pope recalled his order to dissolve the council, and permitted it to proceed. While the Hussite controversy was still unsettled, and until its settlement, the Pope and the prelates were in complete accord; and Catholic history represents this period of harmony as "The bright days of the Council of Basle."

Pope Eugenius IV. and the Council of Bologna.

Pope Eugenius IV. and the Council of Basle.

Antipope Felix V.

Frederick III. and the German Electors.

As there was a prospect of union between the Greek and Roman Catholic Churches, and as the Greek deputation preferred going to some Italian city, the Pope desired to remove the council to Ferrara; and thenceforth Pope Eugenius IV. no longer recognized the Council of Basle, whereupon it elected Felix V. as Antipope. King Frederick III. of Germany sustained Pope Eugenius IV. in his quarrel with the Council of Basle, but the German states sided with the council, whereupon a quarrel broke out between the Pope and the German Electors. With the aid of his secretary, Æneas Sylvius, Frederick III. succeeded in effecting a reconciliation between the German princes and the Pope.

Councils of Basle and Florence.

The General Council assembled at Ferrara, but the breaking out of the plague in that city caused its removal to Florence. The two Councils of Basle and Florence lasted during the entire pontificate of Eugenius IV. A kind of union was effected between the Greek and Roman Catholic Churches by the Council of Florence, but this union was not permanent. This council was visited by the Eastern Emperor, John Palæólogus, and the Patriarch of the Greek Church, with a train of courtiers and Greek clergy. The Eastern Emperor—in order to gain the aid of Western Christendom against the Ottoman Turks—offered to recognize the Pope's supremacy; but the authorities at Constantinople refused to ratify the treaty signed to that effect; and fifteen years

The Eastern Emperor John Palæologus

later (A. D. 1453) the Eastern Empire fell before the conquering Turks.

Pope Nicholas V. and the Concordat of Vienna.

Pope Eugenius IV. died just as Germany had sent Æneas Sylvius, who had been secretary to the Council of Basle, to Rome, to tender submission to the legitimate Pope. The next Pope, Nicholas V., was recognized by the Germans; and the Concordat of Vienna was concluded between that Pope and King Frederick III., by which the Holy See recovered nearly all the powers of which it had been deprived by the Council of Basle. By this concordat all the claims against the exactions of collectors and the abuses of ecclesiastical administration were fully satisfied. Episcopal elections were restored to their primitive condition. Each church named its pastor, who was to be confirmed by the Holy See. This concordat served as the basis of ecclesiastical jurisprudence in Germany until 1803, and its ratification put an end to the schism in the Church.

Weakness of the Imperial Authority.

King Frederick III. hoped to recover some of the lost authority of the German crown by the aid of the friendship of Pope Nicholas V.; but the time for this had passed. The German princes had advanced too far on the way to practical independence to be turned back, and the German king's alliance with the Pope was now powerless to effect anything important for either the King of Germany or the Pope.

Frederick III. Crowned at Rome.

Title of Archduke of Austria.

In 1452 King Frederick III. was crowned Emperor at Rome by Pope Nicholas V. He was the last Emperor crowned at Rome, and the last, except one, who was crowned by the Pope. Upon ascending the imperial throne he confirmed the title of archduke to the Austrian House of Hapsburg, and granted many privileges to it, elevating the archdukes to a dignity next to that of the Electors.

Frederick III. and the Ottoman Turks.

The Emperor Frederick III. very much desired to join in the crusade which the Pope proclaimed against the Ottoman Turks, who had taken Constantinople in 1453, and who were menacing Germany. But the German states were unwilling to sustain the Emperor in this enterprise, as they did not fear any danger from the Turks, and dreaded the Emperor's alliance with the Pope, which they had no desire to strengthen. Thus the task of driving back the Turks devolved entirely upon the Poles and the Hungarians. The Turks laid siege to Belgrade, but were driven back in 1456 by the Hungarians under the command of the regent, the valiant John Hunníyades of Transylvania.

Frederick III. and the Austrian Territories.

Ladislas, who had succeeded his father Albert II. as Duke of Austria, and as King of Hungary and King of Bohemia, died in 1457. The Emperor Frederick III. endeavored to seize the Austrian territories, but was obliged to relinquish Upper Austria to his brother Albert, and retained Lower Austria only. To atone for this disappointment, he then endeavored to obtain possession of the crowns of Bohemia

George Podiebrad of Bohemia and Matthias Corvinus of Hungary.

and Hungary, but did not succeed in either effort. The Bohemians conferred their crown upon George Podiebrad, who had already ruled the kingdom as regent; while Matthias Corvínus, the worthy son of John Hunníyades, was elected King of Hungary by the Hungarian Diet. The Emperor Frederick III. vainly endeavored to oppose these elections, and he was finally obliged to recognize both these sovereigns.

Frederick III., Albert and the Austrian Territories.

Frederick III. had great trouble in preserving his crown even in Lower Austria. The people of Vienna rebelled against him in 1462, and were aided by the Emperor's brother Albert. Frederick III. was forced to yield Lower Austria, with Vienna, to his brother Albert for eight years. Albert soon became as unpopular as Frederick III. himself; and by his death, in 1463, Frederick III. obtained possession of all the Austrian territories except the Tyrol.

Weakness of the Reign of Frederick III.

The power of the German crown had sunk into utter contempt. The Emperor was unable to enforce his authority, and his interference in German affairs only caused trouble without accomplishing anything. The German princes made themselves independent of the Emperor, and exercised the privilege of private warfare without hesitation. Accordingly the reign of Frederick III. was signalized by many internal wars which produced great suffering to the German people.

Suabian League and Albert of Brandenburg.

The Suabian League was engaged in a furious war with Albert, "the German Achilles," the valiant Margrave of the Brandenburg territories of Bayreuth, in Franconia—a war in which nine battles were fought and two hundred villages reduced to ashes. The vicinity of the Rhine and the Neckar was desolated by the War of the Palatinate, during

War of the Palatinate.

which the Palsgrave Frederick the Victorious achieved a brilliant victory near Seckenheim in 1461, and made prisoners of his enemies, Ulrich of Wurtemberg, the Margrave of Baden and the Bishop of Metz; but he was unable to prevent the deposition of his ally, the exiled Archbishop Dieter of Mayence, in whose defense he had taken up arms.

Frederick III. and Matthias Corvinus, King of Hungary.

In 1471 George Podiebad, King of Bohemia, died, and the Emperor Frederick III. made another attempt to obtain the crown of that kingdom. The Bohemian states elected Ladislas, the son of King Casimir IV. of Poland, King of Bohemia. The Emperor and Pope Paul II. induced Matthias Corvínus, King of Hungary, to attack Bohemia; but Frederick III., soon becoming jealous of the great power of the Hungarian king, turned against him and transferred his aid to Ladislas. Thereupon King Matthias Corvínus overran Austria and compelled the Emperor to flee from Vienna. The valiant King of Hungary kept possession of Austria until his death in 1490, when the Emperor Frederick III. recovered his estate and made another effort to become King of Hungary. When he failed in this attempt he endeavored to obtain the Hungarian crown for his son Maxmilian; but the Hungarian

EMPEROR MAXIMILIAN AFTER THE BATTLE OF VERONA RECEIVES A VENETIAN EMBASSY ASKING FOR PEACE

From the Painting by Karl Becker

magnates, jealous of Austria, conferred the crown of Hungary upon King Ladislas of Bohemia.

Charles the Bold of Burgundy.

During the reign of Frederick III. the Eidgenossen, or Swiss confederates, rapidly advanced in power and importance. Charles the Bold, Duke of Burgundy, was one of the wealthiest and most powerful princes of his time; being lord of the duchy of Burgundy, the free county of Burgundy and most of the Netherlands. Not satisfied with these extensive territories, he desired to found a dominion like the old Kingdom of Lotharingia, or Lorraine, by securing the whole region between France and Germany, between the North Sea and the Mediterranean.

Swiss Victories over Charles the Bold.

In 1476 Charles the Bold became involved in a war with the Swiss, the quarrel having been instigated by the crafty King Louis XI. of France. In this war the Swiss fought with more than their accustomed courage, and defeated the Burgundian duke most disastrously in two bloody battles, one at Granson in 1476 and the other at Morat in 1477. A few months afterward the Duke of Burgundy made war on the Duke of Lorraine, who, aided by the Swiss, defeated him in the battle of Nancy, in which Duke Charles the Bold himself was slain. These great victories over the powerful Duke of Burgundy raised the renown of the Swiss to a high degree, and did much toward arousing in them a national feeling, though they still continued to be a portion of the German Empire.

Independence of Milan and Lombardy.

Milan and Lombardy became entirely independent of the German Empire during the reign of Frederick III., who relinquished the government of the archduchy of Austria and the German Empire to his son Maximilian, who had been elected King of Germany in 1486. The Emperor Frederick died in 1493, after a reign of fifty-three years (A. D. 1440–1493).

Death of Frederick III.

Maximilian I., A. D., 1493–1519.

Maximilian I., the son and successor of Frederick III., was a man of greater courage and talents than his weak father, and was called "the last knight." During the life-time of his father there had been negotiations for the marriage of Maximilian with Mary of Burgundy, the daughter of Duke Charles the Bold, but these negotiations had been broken off. Upon the death of Charles the Bold, Mary married Maximilian of her own free will, thus bringing to him the rich inheritance of Franche-Comte, or the free county of Burgundy, and the Netherlands. The duchy of Burgundy had been seized by the rapacious King Louis XI. of France, who, after the death of Duke Charles the Bold without male heirs, claimed the duchy as a lapsed fief of the French crown.

His Marriage with Mary of Burgundy.

Maximilian's Children.

Mary died in 1482, leaving to Maximilian two children, Philip and Margaret. Philip was heir to his mother's territories, but during his

minority these lands were ruled by his father, who was by inheritance Archduke of Austria, and Duke of Styria, Carinthia and Carniola, and Count of Tyrol. Thus Maximilian I. was one of the most powerful sovereigns that had reigned over Germany for a long time.

Diet of Worms and New Imperial Constitution.

When King Charles VIII. of France invaded Italy in 1494 Maximilian I. was anxious to oppose him, as he feared that the French monarch was aiming at the imperial crown. For the purpose of securing the aid of the German states, Maximilian I. summoned a Diet, which convened at Worms in 1495. This famous Diet gave the German Empire a new constitution, by which the private wars that had so long been the curse of Germany were abolished. As the German princes refused to sacrifice any of their real or pretended rights, every proposal that appeared likely to increase the king's power, or to diminish the power of the princes, encountered a determined resistance. The constitution finally agreed upon at this imperial Diet at Worms by Maximilian I. with the Electors, the nobles, the bishops, and the representatives of the free imperial towns, while striking a death-blow to the right of private warfare, completely undermined the German sovereign's authority.

Landfriede, or Land Peace.

The imperial constitution framed by this Diet at Worms put an end to private war by establishing the *Landfriede*, "Landpeace," by which any one was forbidden to seek self-redress by appealing to arms on his own account, under penalty of being outlawed and put under the ban of the Empire. The German princes urged their sovereign to create an imperial tribunal by which all the quarrels that had formerly been settled by arms might be tried; and though Maximilian I. was greatly averse to surrendering any of his kingly rights, he consented to this scheme, in order to secure the assistance of the imperial Diet against King Charles VIII. of France. Accordingly an *Imperial Chamber* was constituted, which was to be composed of a judge and sixteen assessors, the judge to be appointed by the king, and the assessors to be selected by the German states and to be confirmed by the king. Persons who refused to submit to the jurisdiction of the court were to be outlawed and put under the ban of the Empire. Provision was made for the expenses of the Imperial Chamber by the assessment of a common tax.

Imperial Chamber.

Maximilian's Opposition Thereto.

Maximilian I. was always hostile to the Imperial Chamber and threw every obstacle in its way, but it continued to exist until the end of the Empire in 1806, without possessing much real power or doing much good. The Swiss, who offended Maximilian I. by entering into an alliance with the French and assisting them in their efforts to conquer Italy, refused to submit to the Imperial Chamber and denied their contingent of taxes. In 1499 Maximilian I. attempted to reduce them

Swiss Revolt.

to submission by force of arms, but was defeated and compelled to make a disgraceful retreat, and was obliged to forego his demands in the Peace of Basle, A. D. 1499, by which he acknowledged the exemption of the Swiss from imperial taxation and from the jurisdiction of the Imperial Chamber. Switzerland remained nominally a portion of the Germano-Roman Empire for a century and a-half longer, until 1648, but the concessions wrung from Maximilian I. in the Peace of Basle rendered the Swiss practically independent.

Peace of Basle.

Independence of Switzerland.

Being unable to accomplish much at home, Maximilian I. attempted to interfere in the affairs of other countries. As he was about to march to Rome in 1508, to be crowned Emperor, he was stopped by the Venetians, who refused to permit him a passage through their territory. With the sanction of Pope Julius II., Maximilian I. assumed the title of *Emperor-elect*, without being crowned at all—a title borne by all succeeding Kings of Germany.

Maximilian and the Venetians.

Title of Emperor-elect.

The refusal of the Venetians to allow Maximilian I. to pass through their territory incurred for them the Emperor's bitter hostility; and in 1508 he very readily united with Pope Julius II., King Louis XII. of France and King Ferdinand the Catholic of Spain in the *League of Cambray* against Venice. He afterwards joined the *Holy League* against Louis XII. of France. The Emperor Maximilian I. was generally unsuccessful in his wars.

League of Cambray and Holy League.

The German states perceived that peace was their great need, not war, and by refusing to supply the Emperor with troops and money they rendered him powerless to embroil them very deeply in wars with other nations. The revenues of Maximilian's hereditary estates, on which he was obliged to depend, did not enable him to carry on very expensive wars; and his luxurious habits subjected his finances to a very great strain. He was frequently so much in need of money that in order to replenish his purse he descended to acts unbecoming his august position, as when he served as a private in the army of King Henry VIII. of England at the siege of Terouenne in the latter's war with France, receiving as pay one hundred crowns a day. Maximilian I. professed a desire to lead a crusade against the Turks; but the German states distrusted both the Emperor and the Pope who supported him, and therefore refused to grant him any aid.

Maximilian's Impecuniosity.

In 1501 the German Empire was divided into *Circles* for the better administration of justice. Six Circles were then formed—Bavaria, Suabia, Franconia, Upper Rhine, Westphalia, and Lower Saxony. In 1512 four new Circles were formed out of Maximilian's hereditary dominions and the territories of the Electors who had been excluded from the first division. These were Austria, Burgundy, Lower Rhine, and Upper Saxony. Thus Germany was divided into ten Circles, each

Circles of the German Empire.

of which had its own states, or legislative assembly, over which one or more directors presided. The government of a Circle was assigned the duty of enforcing the decisions of the Imperial Chamber, and was required to maintain order and enforce tranquillity within its own dominions.

Practical Results. It required some years for this new system to get into operation, and even then its results fell far below the expectations of its founders, though it was a great improvement upon the lawlessness of the preceding three centuries. This arrangement raised the power of the German princes to a still greater height, so that they became absolute rulers in their own respective territories.

The Aulic Council. Maximilian I. ruled well in his hereditary dominions, and inaugurated many useful reforms, among which was the establishment of a tribunal afterwards called the *Aulic Council*, which was charged with the duty of hearing appeals from lower courts, and which finally became a court of appeal for all Germany.

Maximilian's Papal Aspirations. At one time Maximilian I. cherished the hope of exchanging the imperial crown for the papal tiara. He even pawned the archducal mantle of Austria, to procure funds to bribe the cardinals. He wrote to his daughter Margaret: "To-morrow I shall send a bishop to the Pope, to conclude an agreement with him that I may be appointed his coadjutor, and on his death succeed to the Papacy, that you may be bound to worship me—at which I shall be very proud."

Maximilian's Last Days and Death. The Emperor Maximilian I. held a Diet at Augsburg in 1518, where he endeavored to induce the German states to assist him in a crusade against the Ottoman Turks. On his way home from this Diet, he died at Wels, in Upper Austria, A. D. 1519.

Transition Period of Maximilian's Reign. The reign of Maximilian I. forms the transition period between mediæval and modern times. This chivalrous Emperor himself, with his valiant deeds in battle and tournament, may well be considered "the last knight" on the imperial throne of Germany. His fondness for the decaying chivalric poetry, his marriage with Mary of Burgundy, his wars in the Netherlands and in Italy, are all stamped with the mediæval character. But at this time, also, began a more refined political science and a greater intercourse among nations, which, along with the new discoveries and inventions, brought about the modern epoch.

Change in the Imperial Power. The power of the Emperors had undergone a considerable change in its character during the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries. They did not derive their power from their position as sovereign of Germany, but from their hereditary wealth and influence. The authority of Maximilian I. and his successors was uncertain in Germany, though they were supreme in their hereditary dominions.

German State Legislatures.

The various princes of the German empire had become practically independent by the time of the reign of Maximilian I.; and each German state had its states, or legislative body, which was modeled after the Diet of the Empire. These states, or legislatures, possessed the sole power of levying taxes and granting funds to their rulers, and sometimes they required them to give an account of the manner in which they disposed of the funds. These states usually resisted the efforts of the Austrian Emperors of Germany to drag them into foreign wars, because they perceived that these struggles were for the special benefit of Austria rather than of Germany.

The Free Imperial Cities.

Many of the imperial cities had become free, and had acquired such power that they were able to uphold their rights against the most powerful princes of the Empire. The representatives of these free cities constituted the third college in the imperial Diet. The Hanseatic League was at the zenith of its power and glory during the closing period of the Middle Ages. The government of the cities was contested by the *patricians*, or old families, who constituted a distinct class, and by the *guilds*, or unions of the various trades. The guilds held the ascendency in many of the German cities, and the governments were democratic in such cities.

Hanseatic League.

Patricians and Guilds.

CHAPTER XXVI.

FEUDAL FRANCE.

SECTION I.—FRANCE UNDER THE CAPET DYNASTY (A. D. 987–1328).

Hugh Capet, A.D. 987–996.

The real history of the Kingdom of France commences with the accession of Hugh Capet, the founder of the Capetian dynasty of French monarchs, A. D. 987. His elevation to the French throne was considered the triumph of the French nationality over what had been generally regarded as the foreign rule of the Carlovingian dynasty. The illustrious royal race founded by Hugh Capet ruled France in continuous succession for eight centuries, until overthrown by the great French Revolution of 1789.

His Posterity.

Eight French Principalities.

The reign of Hugh Capet was disturbed by the restlessness and ambition of the French nobles. There were at this time eight powerful principalities in France, each independent of the French crown—namely, Burgundy, Aquitaine, Normandy, Brittany, Gascony, Flanders, Champagne and Toulouse; and the royal authority was most insignificant.

Revolt of Duke Charles of Lorraine.

Hugh Capet reigned nine years (A. D. 987–996), and proved himself an able and sagacious monarch. The first years of his reign were disturbed by the efforts of Duke Charles of Lorraine to seize the French throne, but these efforts failed, and Hugh Capet's power was firmly established. Charles of Lorraine was taken prisoner, and died in captivity a few months later, A. D. 992.

Hugh Capet's Supporters.

Hugh Capet sought to secure the support of the powerful nobles of the South of France, and was likewise careful to gain the favor of the Church by conferring rich possessions upon the clergy. He also restored to the monasteries throughout his kingdom the privilege of free election, which had been discontinued since the reign of Charles the Bald. After securing the succession by causing his son Robert to be crowned at Orleans, Hugh Capet died peacefully at Paris, October 24, A. D. 996, in the fifty-seventh year of his age.

His Death.

Robert the Pious, A.D. 996–1031.

Robert the Pious succeeded his father as King of France without opposition, in the twenty-fourth year of his age. He had been a pupil of the celebrated Gerbert, afterwards Pope Sylvester II., under whom he acquired a fair education. He excelled in music, and passed his hours in composing hymns and in deeds of charity, to which his amiable and benevolent disposition inclined him.

His Quarrel with Pope Gregory V.

Having married his fourth cousin Bertha, King Robert the Pious was excommuncated by Pope Gregory V., and his kingdom was laid under an interdict. After some years of spirited resistance to the ecclesiastical authorities, Robert was obliged to divorce his beloved Bertha, whom he never ceased to cherish. He submitted to the Church in order to regain for his subjects the enjoyment of their religious rites, of which the papal interdict had deprived them.

The Year A.D. 1000.

The general belief that the world would come to an end in the year A.D. 1000 overspread all Christendom just before that year's approach, and this belief manifested itself in a marked degree in France. It found expression in a movement joined in by all classes, for the restoration and improvement of the churches and monasteries, and for the

Church Architecture.

erection of new edifices of a similar character. "It was the beginning of that wonderful architectural movement of the Middle Ages which has covered Europe with its glorious monuments of Christian art and Christian self-devotion." The Abbey of St. Martin at Tours, the magnificent Church of St. Aignan at Orleans, the cathedrals of Perigueux, Angoulême and Cahors, are some of the numerous remarkable structures erected during the reign of Robert the Pious. The splendid abbeys of Clugny and Vezelai, and that of St. Sernin at Toulouse, were founded later in the eleventh century.

General Fear of the Year A.D. 1000.

The general gloom which prevailed at the approach of the year 1000 caused people to neglect the preparation of the coming year's crops, and the consequence was a famine. It was in the midst of the religious enthusiasm occasioned by this superstitious belief that the news reached Europe of the profanation and destruction of the Holy Sepulcher by Hakem, the Fatimite Khalif of Egypt. The Jews were suspected of

Massacres of Jews.

having instigated this outrage, and they were everywhere cruelly put to death, especially in France. King Robert the Pious himself directed the attack upon them at Sens, A. D. 1016.

Robert's Second wife, Constance of Provence.

In 1006 Robert the Pious married Constance, daughter of the Count of Toulouse, a woman of imperious will and overbearing disposition, who had her royal husband completely under her control. The chronicles of the time give us numerous anecdotes as examples of the meek patience with which the king submitted to her tyranny, and the affectionate ingenuity with which he shielded others from the same tyranny. Constance brought a train of attendants, and attracted many of the

EXCOMMUNICATION OF ROBERT THE PIOUS

From the Painting by J. P. Laurens

gay and polished natives of Aquitaine to her court, thus introducing the superior civilization and refinement of the South of France into the Northern provinces.

Revolts of Robert's Sons.

The last years of Robert the Pious were troubled by the revolt of his sons, who were goaded into rebellion by the insolent and factious conduct of their mother Constance. The king took the field against his rebellious sons, and, after a bloody campaign in Burgundy, reduced them to submission. Robert never recovered from the shock caused him by the unnatural conduct of his sons. He was attacked with illness immediately after subduing the revolt, and died at the castle of Melun in A. D. 1031, after a reign of thirty-five years, leaving the crown to his son, HENRY I.

Henry I., A.D. 1031–1060.

Civil War.

Constance sought to set aside the claims of her elder son, King Henry I., in favor of her youngest and favorite son Robert, and the French kingdom was again distracted by civil war. Eudes, the great Count of Blois, Chartres and Champagne, supported the queen-mother with such vigor that Henry was under the necessity of soliciting the aid of Robert the Devil, Duke of Normandy. With the Norman duke's assistance, Henry reduced his mother and her partisans to submission. In the settlement of the kingdom Henry generously provided for his mother, and assigned the duchy of Burgundy to his brother Robert, whose descendants held it for over three centuries. Overcome with mortification at her defeat, Constance died at Melun in July, A. D. 1032.

The Queen-mother Constance's Revolt Subdued.

Robert the Devil, Duke of Normandy.

To reward Duke Robert the Devil of Normandy for his aid, King Henry I. was obliged to cede to that powerful vassal the territories of Gisors, Chaumont, Pontoise and the entire district of the Vexin, situated between the Oise and the Epte. This acquisition of territory extended the frontier of the powerful duchy of Normandy to within twenty miles of Paris.

"Truce of God."

About this time a terrible famine of three years ravaged France, inflicting the most dreadful suffering upon the country. The Church took advantage of the general consternation and despondency to impose a check upon the evil practice of private warfare, by proclaiming the "*Truce of God*," which provided that no act of violence should be committed from Wednesday evening to Monday morning. The truce was never rigidly enforced, but it was never abolished, and it vastly mitigated the miseries of private war, and contributed much toward restoring social order and public confidence by aiding the progress of agriculture and commerce, which were placed under its special protection. So little was the authority of Henry I. respected that the leading French nobles, such as the Counts of Toulouse, Flanders and Champagne, eclipsed the king in power.

Pilgrimage of Duke Robert the Devil of Normandy.

Duke Robert the Devil of Normandy was suspected of having obtained his ducal throne by murdering his elder brother Richard III. He furnished ground for this suspicion several years afterward, by going on a pilgrimage to the Holy Land, after having compelled the Duke of Brittany to become his vassal. Robert the Devil made his illegitimate son, William II., afterwards the Conqueror of England, his successor on the ducal throne of Normandy in case he should never return from his pilgrimage; and the Norman barons willingly accepted William II., and took an oath of allegiance to the young duke, who was then a lad of seven years. Robert the Devil set out on his pilgrimage and reached Jerusalem, but died at Nice, in Bithynia, on his return homeward, A. D. 1035.

Defeats of Henry I. by Duke William II. of Normandy.

Upon hearing of Robert's death, the Norman barons refused to acknowledge William II. on account of his illegitimacy. William was at first supported by King Henry I., but the French monarch at length turned his arms against the young Norman duke. William II. decisively defeated King Henry I. at Mortemer in 1058, and by a second great victory at Varaville he forced the king to abstain from interference with the affairs of Normandy and established his own authority firmly over his duchy.

Philip I. A.D. 1060–1108.

King Henry I. died in August, A. D. 1060, and was succeeded on the throne of France by his eldest son, Philip I., the child of his third wife, a Russian princess. Philip I. was a boy of eight years when he became King of France, and during the first seven years of his reign the government of the French kingdom was wisely administered by his uncle and guardian, Count Baldwin V. of Flanders. Baldwin's death in 1067 left King Philip I. his own master, though he was still less than fifteen years of age. The youthful king was possessed of fair abilities and a good education, but from a very early age he manifested a strong tendency to voluptuousness and debauchery, and these soon became the most prominent traits of his character, to his own disgrace and to the mortification of his subjects.

Count Baldwin of Flanders.

Conquest of England by Duke William II. of Normandy.

During Philip's minority Duke William II. of Normandy invaded and conquered England. Before starting on his expedition William visited his youthful suzerain at St. Germain-en-Laye, and solicited his aid; but the young king's counselors induced their sovereign to decline the Norman duke's request, because they feared that if William succeeded he would become too powerful a neighbor, while in case of failure France would expose herself to the just enmity of England. Duke William II. was not dispirited by his youthful king's refusal, and prosecuted his project to a crowning success. After conquering England he was crowned king of that country at Westminster Abbey on Christmas day, A. D. 1066.

Wars of Philip I. with Duke William II. of Normandy.

The acquisition of the English crown by the Norman duke made that great vassal of the French monarch a more powerful sovereign than his royal suzerain himself, thus arousing Philip's jealousy. In 1075 the king took the field against William in support of Alan, Count of Brittany, who had rebelled against his Norman liege-lord. Philip I. united his forces with those of Alan, and compelled the Duke of Normandy to raise the siege of Dol and retire with considerable loss. Some time afterward Philip I. encouraged Robert Courthouse, Duke William's eldest son, to rebel against his father. For several years that prince maintained a desultory warfare in Normandy without accomplishing any decisive result.

Revolt against William.

William's Revengeful Invasion and Death.

For a long time the Duke of Normandy bore King Philip's aggressions with remarkable patience, but he finally resolved to put a stop to them. He demanded that Philip should restore the Vexin district, which the French crown had unlawfully recovered during William's minority. The king replied to this demand by an insulting refusal, whereupon the Norman duke marched into the disputed district, frightfully ravaged it, and took and burned the town of Mantes. William was thrown from his horse amid the ruins of the town and severely injured. He was removed by his attendants to Rouen, and afterward to the monastery of St. Gervais, near that city, where he died six weeks later, September 10, 1087.

King Philip's Quarrel with Pope Gregory VII., Hildebrand.

King Philip's habitual immorality now involved him in a contest with the Church. As his private revenues were inadequate to defray the expenses of his infamous pleasures, he endeavored to increase them by selling bishoprics and other ecclesiastical dignities to the highest bidder. Pope Gregory VII. (Hildebrand) was aroused to intense indignation by this wholesale simony, and he threatened to excommunicate and depose the French king if the practice was not discontinued. Afraid to face the stern Pope, King Philip I. submitted and for a while obeyed the papal mandate; but when the Pope was in the midst of his famous struggle with King Henry IV. of Germany in the War of Investitures, the King of France relapsed into his old ways, and the Pope considered it best not to proceed to extremities against Philip.

Philip's Imprisonment of His Wife Bertha.

His Unlawful Marriage with Bertrade de Montfort.

In A. D. 1092 King Philip I. imprisoned his good wife Bertha in the castle of Montreuil, simply because he became tired of her after she had borne him several children. In the same year he seduced and carried off Bertrade de Montfort, the wife of the Count of Anjou, the most beautiful woman in the French kingdom. The countess exacted a promise from the king that he should marry her, and Philip I. readily found two bishops who pronounced the blessing of the Church upon the infamous union. The Count of Anjou, the lawful husband of Bertrade, and the Count of Flanders, the step-father of King Philip's

Their Excommunication by Pope Urban II.

lawful wife Bertha, took up arms against the king. Pope Urban II. excommuncated the guilty couple in 1094, and forbade Philip I. to use any of the ensigns of royalty until he should abandon Bertrade and perform penance for his sin. The king really cared very little for the papal anathema, but desired to save his crown, and thus made an outward submission to the Pope, who paid no further attention to his acts.

Philip I. and Bertrade.

Philip I. continued to live with Bertrade, and caused her to be crowned as his queen at Troyes. She bore him four children, but their legitimacy was never admitted. In the meantime his first and lawful wife Bertha died of a broken heart in her prison at Montreuil. The

First Crusade.

excitement which led to the First Crusade now drew attention from the king's private life; and Pope Urban II., occupied with his zeal for the recovery of Jerusalem, permitted Philip I. and Bertrade to live together as husband and wife without any further molestation for the rest of their lives.

Louis VI., the Fat, A.D. 1108–1137.

King Philip I. died in A. D. 1108, after a reign of more than forty-seven years—one of the longest reigns in French history. He was succeeded on the French throne by his son Louis VI., surnamed *le Gros*, "the Fat," because of his corpulence. Louis VI. was one of the best of French sovereigns. When he ascended the throne the immediate dominions of the King of France embraced only the five cities of Paris, Melun, Etampes, Orleans and Sens, with the territory surrounding each.

Lawlessness of the Robber Nobles.

These towns were separated from each other by the strong fortresses of nobles, who interrupted the communication between them and engaged in a regular system of brigandage, pillaging travelers and seizing and imprisoning them in their castles, from which the captives were only enabled to escape by the payment of a large ransom. These robber nobles trampled on all public law, and there was no order or security in any part of the French kingdom.

Suger, Abbot of St. Denis.

King Louis VI. devoted himself first to restore law and order in his kingdom, and he effected this result by encouraging the people to unite and resist the rapacious and lawless barons. Suger, Abbot of St. Denis, who was made the king's confidential friend and prime minister, induced the Church to give the king and the people a hearty and effective support in their struggle with the lawless nobles. This contest

Enfranchisement of the Communes

continued eight years, and resulted in what is called the *Enfranchisement of the Communes*. Encouraged by King Louis VI., the various communes combined for mutual defense against the lawlessness of their feudal lords, compelling them to grant security of personal freedom and those great privileges of internal organization and self-government

Third Estate

which made the commons, or *tiers état*, "third estate," one of the great constituent orders of France and a check upon the power of the great feudal nobility.

Origin of the Communes.

Although King Louis VI. contributed so much to this movement, he does not deserve credit for originating it, as the communes were organized by the citizens themselves, and not by any sovereign, being the result of a simultaneous popular rising throughout France for defense against oppression, for the maintenance of the rights of property, and for the protection and development of commerce. King Louis VI. aided in making the movement successful by becoming the champion of public order, by devoting himself to redress wrongs and reform abuses, and by asserting the supremacy of the French crown over all its vassals, most of whom had renounced all thought of subordination.

Restoration of Order.

Liberties of the French Towns.

The forms of municipal government were not the same in the North and in the South of France. The cities of the South had always retained the municipal privileges which the ancient Romans had conferred upon them. They now merely asserted them by choosing their own local magistrates and by arming for the common defense. The liberties of the towns of the North were usually wrung from their feudal lords. A third class of French towns consisted of those which were voluntarily enfranchised by their feudal lords and granted personal freedom, security of property and certain commercial privileges, but which were without the right of choosing their own magistrates or conducting their own governments.

Increase of the Royal Power.

The increase of the royal power was another result of the organization of communes. The king was often invoked to mediate between the nobles and the people; and, as both sides considered his decision final, he came to be recognized as the supreme power in the kingdom. Most of the boroughs were required to contribute annually to the royal treasury and to furnish a specified force of militia upon the king's requisition. With the supplies which they thus obtained, the Kings of France were enabled to extend the royal domains and to force their rebellious vassals to respect their authority. Aided by the wise counsels of the Abbé Suger, Louis VI. governed his kingdom with such firmness and intelligence that he restored the royal power in France, revived the national prosperity, and enlarged his dominions to something like their ancient and natural dimensions. His merits as a sovereign are abundantly attested by the affection which his subjects bore him.

War of Louis VI. with Henry I. of England.

The reign of Louis VI. was marked by several wars. Duke Robert II. of Normandy, while returning from the Holy Land, was captured by his brother, King Henry I. of England, and spent the remainder of his life in captivity in Cardiff castle, in Wales. His son, William Cliton, escaped from Henry's pursuit, and appealed to the King of France to place him in possession of his father's duchy of Normandy. Louis VI. responded to the young Norman prince's appeal, and engaged in a war of several years with Henry I. of England. Henry had lately

erected the strong castle of Gisors on the frontier of Normandy. The English defeated the French in the battle of Brenneville, the first conflict between the two nations (A. D. 1124). William Cliton was slain in 1128, thus removing the main cause of the war between France and England.

Battle of Brenneville.

War of Louis VI. with Henry V. of Germany.

Henry I. of England was a shrewder politician than Louis VI., and he contrived to involve his rival in a war with Henry V. of Germany. Pope Calixtus V. had been driven out of Italy by the German king and compelled to seek refuge in France. The Pope convened a Council at Rheims and thundered an excommunication against the German Emperor, who resolved to destroy the town where so gross an insult was offered to him.

The Oriflamme Unfurled

Thereupon the King of France unfurled the *Oriflamme*. The vassals of the crown flocked to the sacred standard, and Louis VI. soon had two hundred thousand men to oppose the German Emperor, who hastily retreated across the Rhine into his own dominions.

Account of the Oriflamme.

The *Oriflamme*, or sacred banner of France, was said by the monks to have been placed in the monastery of St. Denis, the patron saint of France, by an angel from heaven in the times of Clovis or Charlemagne. The staff was of gold, and the flag was of red silk covered with golden flames, whence its name. It was not the standard of the king, but of the kingdom, and it was only brought forward on the most important occasions. The unfurling of the Oriflamme was the signal for all the vassals of France to assemble around their king and to follow him to war. When displayed in battle it was a signal that no quarter would be given. Many fabled virtues were attributed to this banner, and it was believed that its presence would insure victory; but the falsehood of this was proved in the great defeat of the French by the English at Creçy in 1346. The Oriflamme entirely disappeared in the reign of Louis XI., near the close of the Middle Ages. The respect in which the Oriflamme was held is shown by the oath administered to its bearer:

Oath of the Oriflamme's Bearer.

"You swear and promise, on the precious body of Jesus Christ, here present, and on the bodies of Monseigneur St. Denis and his companions, here also, that you will loyally, in your own person, guard and govern the Oriflamme of our lord the king, also present, to the honor and profit of himself and his kingdam, and that you will not abandon it for the fear of death or any other cause, but that you will in all things do your duty, as becomes a good and loyal knight, towards your sovereign and liege-lord."

Princess Matilda's Marriage with Geoffrey Plantagenet.

For the purpose of strengthening himself in France, King Henry I. of England procured the marriage of his only daughter, Matilda, the widow of the German Emperor Henry V., to Geoffrey Plantagenet, the eldest son of Foulques V., the reigning Count of Anjou. This

was a shrewd proceedings; as Count Foulques V. resigned his county of Anjou in favor of his son Geoffrey in 1129, and started for the Holy Land, thus bringing one of the most important parts of France under the influence of the English crown.

Geoffrey Plantagenet's War with King Stephen of England.

On the death of King Henry I. of England, in 1135, his nephew, Count Stephen of Blois, usurped the crown of England, which rightfully belonged to Matilda, and also claimed the duchy of Normandy, which was contested by Geoffrey Plantagenet in right of his wife, thus giving rise to a bloody war for the possession of the duchy. Geoffrey Plantagenet was vanquished, and Stephen's son won Normandy with the aid of the French king.

Marriage of Prince Louis with Eleanora of Aquitaine.

Louis VI. made another gain at this time. William X., Duke of Aquitaine, for the purpose of atoning for his crimes, went on a pilgrimage to the shrine of St. James of Compostella, in Spain, where he died in April, A. D. 1137. Before starting on his pilgrimage, Duke William X. made his only daughter Eleanora the sole heiress of his dominions, and placed her under the guardianship of King Louis VI. on condition that she should be married to the king's son Louis le Jeune, the heir to the French crown. Louis VI. gladly accepted this offer, as it brought to his son and heir almost all of France south of the Loire; and the marriage was solemnized in the cathedral of Bordeaux, in August, A. D. 1137.

Louis VII., A.D. 1137–1180.

King Louis VI. himself died on the day before his son's marriage, and his son Louis VII. became King of France (A. D. 1137). The French kingdom now extended from the river Somme and the frontiers of Flanders to the Adour and the Pyrenees. On his death-bed Louis VI. addressed his son Louis thus: "Remember, my son, that a kingdom is a public trust, for the exercise of which you must render a strict account after your death."

His Father's Dying Advice.

Abelard, the French Philosopher.

The reign of Louis VI. was a period of great intellectual activity in France, and was made illustrious by a number of great lights, such as Roscelin, St. Anselm, Pierre Abelard, St. Bernard and William de Champeaux. Abelard, the renowned French philosopher, the restorer of philosophy in the Middle Ages, was born A. D. 1079, and taught with extraordinary success in Paris. He simplified and explained everything, presenting philosophy in a familiar form and impressing it on men's minds. In the height of his popularity he became violently enamored of his pupil Heloise, and forgot his duty to himself and mankind. After his cruel punishment he renounced the world and became a monk, but he found no peace, as he was charged with heresy and condemned by the Church, through the instrumentality of St. Bernard. He sought and found a refuge in the famous monastery of Clugny, in Burgundy, where he died two years later, A. D. 1142.

St. Bernard, Abbot of Clairvaux.

St. Bernard, Abbot of Clairvaux, in Burgundy, was born of a noble Burgundian family. He was carefully trained by pious parents, and sent to study at the University of Paris. At the age of twenty-three he entered the monastery of Citeaux, in Burgundy, just then founded, accompanied by his brothers and more than twenty of his companions. He observed the strictest rules of the order, and so distinguished himself by his ability and acquirements that he was selected to lead the monkish colony to Clairvaux, and was made abbot of the new monastery, an office which he held for the rest of his life. His fame attracted many monks, a number of whom attained distinction, among them Pope Eugenius III., six cardinals and many bishops. In 1128 St. Bernard prepared the statutes for the order of Knights Templars. Popes and princes desired his support, and readily referred their disputes to his decision.

St. Bernard and the Second Crusade.

St. Bernard was the principal promoter of the Second Crusade. At the Council of Vezelai, in 1146, he spoke as by inspiration before the French king and nobles, and gave them their crosses with his own hand. He then preached the Crusade in Germany, where he persuaded King Conrad III. to join in the great expedition, but refused the command which was offered to him. His prediction of success was not verified, as the Crusade was without results.

St. Bernard's Writings and Sermons.

St. Bernard was the violent foe of Arnold of Brescia and of Abelard. He steadily refused the offers of several archbishopries and other ecclesiastical dignities, preferring to remain a mere abbot. His character and his writings have secured for him the title of "the Last of the Fathers." The power, tenderness and simplicity characterizing his sermons and other works have secured for him the admiration of both Catholics and Protestants. Dante introduces him in the last cantos of the *Paradise*, with profound reverence, admiration and love. Luther studied his writings with similar feelings.

Quarrel of Louis VII. with Pope Victor III.

Louis VII. did not inherit his father's talents or good sense. In 1141, four years after his accession, he quarreled with Pope Victor III. about the right to appoint an Archbisop of Bourges. The Pope was sustained by the Count of Champagne, and the next year war broke out between the king and this powerful vassal. Louis VII. was obliged by his superstitious fears to yield two years afterward, thus giving the Holy See another triumph.

Louis VII., Stephen of Blois and Geoffrey Plantagenet.

Louis VII. participated in the struggle between the Counts of Blois and Anjou for the possession of Normandy, by espousing the cause of Geoffrey Plantagenet, and secured him in the possession of that great duchy. Finally a compromise was effected, by which Count Stephen of Blois retained the throne of England during his life, while Geoffrey Plantagenet's eldest son Henry was named as Stephen's heir.

Revolts of Count Thibault of Champagne.

Count Thibault of Champagne had rebelled against the king, but had been reduced to submission and pardoned. But Thibault took up arms a second time; and Louis VII., exasperated at his conduct, attacked his castle of Vitry, and set it on fire, but the flames spread to a village close by and destroyed a church and many of its inmates. Shocked at this accident, the king made peace with Count Thibault; and, as an atonement for the dreadful accident, Louis VII., in connection with Conrad III., King of Germany, engaged in the Second Crusade, A. D. 1147; but both monarchs were unfortunate in that undertaking, and after losing all but a few of their followers they returned to Europe.

Beneficent Administration of the Abbe Suger.

The government of the French kingdom was well administered by the Abbé Suger during the king's absence in the Holy Land. The Abbé Suger was one of the wisest statesmen that France ever produced, and vainly sought to prevent the king from engaging in the Crusade. Under the beneficent administration of this able statesman, Louis VII. found his kingdom in excellent condition upon his return home. By the death of the Abbé Suger, in January, 1152, Louis VII. lost his ablest counselor. The death of this great statesman was followed by the greatest political blunder of Louis VII.

Divorce of Louis VII. and Queen Eleanora.

The king had reason to suspect the fidelity of his wife, Queen Eleanora, during his absence in Palestine; and when he returned to France he confided his trouble to the Abbé Suger, who implored him to conceal and overlook his queen's conduct, if possible, for the good of France. The high-spirited Eleanora regarded her weak husband with contempt, and the breach between them daily widened. Both demanded a divorce; and in March, 1152, the Council of Beaugency declared the marriage null and void.

Eleanora's Marriage with Henry Plantagenet, afterwards Henry II. of England.

Eleanora then resumed her rank as Duchess of Aquitaine, and assumed the government of her hereditary dominions, thus depriving the French crown of more than half of its possessions. Six weeks afterward she married Henry Plantagenet, Duke of Normandy and Brittany, and Count of Anjou, Poitou, Touraine and Maine. On the death of King Stephen of England, in October, 1154, Henry Plantagenet ascended the English throne as Henry II., thus becoming the most powerful sovereign in Europe. Thus was laid the foundation of the lifelong enmity between King Louis VII. of France and King Henry II. of England.

War of Louis VII. with Henry II. of England

For twenty years Louis and Henry were engaged in almost continual war, as the French king claimed the right of feudal superiority over the English monarch. During his war with the Duke of Normandy, Louis besieged Rouen; and, after granting the citizens of the beleaguered town a truce, he perfidiously assaulted the city, but was justly punished by a vigorous repulse.

Louis VII. and Henry's Other Enemies.

Louis VII. was no match for Henry Plantagenet, who contrived to obtain the advantage over his rival on every occasion, but Louis gave Henry considerable trouble during his reign. He sheltered and protected the exiled Primate of England, Thomas à Becket, and aided and encouraged the rebellion of Henry's wife, Queen Eleanora, and her sons Henry, Geoffrey and Richard, against their father; but when Henry had crushed the rebellion of his wife and sons the French monarch was glad to make peace with the King of England.

Philip Augustus, A.D. 1180–1223.

Louis VII. died September 18, A. D. 1180, and was succeeded as King of France by PHILIP AUGUSTUS, his son by a third marriage with Alice, the sister of Count Thibault of Champagne. Philip Augustus was fifteen years old at his accession. His surname, according to some writers, was given him because he was born in August. Other writers consider his surname as synonymous with the word *Great*.

His Marriage with Isebella of Hainault.

Soon after his accession he married Isabella, daughter of Count Baldwin of Hainault and niece of Count Philip of Flanders, who received as her dowry the town of Amiens and the promise of a part of Flanders at her uncle's death.

The Duke of Burgundy Humbled by Philip Augustus.

The first act of Philip Augustus indicated his future policy to increase the royal power at the expense of the great feudatories of France. He forced the powerful Duke of Burgundy, who had robbed the Church and had refused to make restitution, to make adequate reparation for the injuries which he had inflicted, and to submit himself to his sovereign's clemency. When the Burgundian duke submitted, the king treated him with wise generosity.

Jews Banished by Philip Augustus.

In 1182 Philip Augustus gave another example of the decisive energy of his character by banishing the Jews from the French kingdom and confiscating their synagogues to the Church, and by imposing heavy penalties upon profane swearers, blasphemers, gamblers, and the heretical sect of the Paterini, many of the last suffering death in the most cruel manner.

Philip Augustus and Henry II of England.

War between France and England was renewed in A. D. 1187, and a large portion of the English king's possessions in the duchy of Berri was overrun by the French monarch before King Henry II. of England could arrive. A truce was concluded before a battle was fought, and Philip Augustus and Henry II. met near Gisors in 1188 to conclude a definite peace. At this meeting intelligence was received of the capture of Jerusalem by the valiant Sultan Saladin of Egypt, and the aged Archbishop of Tyre powerfully appealed for assistance against the Moslems. Losing sight of their own interests, the French and English kings concluded a treaty of peace with each other, and solemnly pledged themselves to assume the cross and rescue the Holy Land from the Mohammedans. The example of the two kings was followed by the

Truce and Peace.

chivalry of France, Normandy and England, and two years were devoted to preparing for the Third Crusade.

Triumph of Philip Augustus over Henry II. of England.

In spite of their treaty, the war between the Kings of France and England was renewed the next summer (A. D. 1189). Philip Augustus found an efficient ally in Richard the Lion-hearted, the son of King Henry II. of England, who openly rebelled against his father and did homage to the French king for his possessions in France. The English monarch was obliged to sue for peace and to sign a humiliating treaty, thus making an unqualified submission to his powerful rival, renouncing all pretension to the sovereignty of Berri, purchasing by a heavy ransom the restitution of the towns taken by the French, and consenting that all the barons who had taken up arms in behalf of his son Richard the Lion-hearted should remain vassals of that valiant prince. Henry II. of England died in 1189, from grief and mortification, and was succeeded in his dominions by his renowned and valiant son Richard the Lion-hearted.

Third Crusade.

Kings Philip Augustus and Richard the Lion-hearted united with the German Emperor Frederick Barbarossa in the Third Crusade. The French and English monarchs led a joint expedition in 1190, reaching Palestine in the spring of 1191. Their first operation in the Holy Land was the siege of Acre, of which Richard the Lion-hearted was the hero, as he was of the entire Third Crusade. Philip Augustus was more of a statesman than a warrior, and was very jealous of his ally's glory. The two kings quarreled, and Philip Augustus returned to France after the capture of Acre, after first solemnly swearing to respect Richard's rights and territories.

Quarrel of Philip Augustus with Richard the Lion-hearted.

Plot of Philip Augustus with Richard's Brother John

The French monarch at once proceeded to Rome, where he sought to persuade Pope Celestine III. to absolve him from his oath to the King of England; but the Pope, to his great credit, refused to grant Philip's request. Philip Augustus then returned to France, fully determined to strike a decisive blow at Richard the Lion-hearted at the first opportunity. The occasion soon presented itself. Richard's brother John was busily conspiring to deprive his brother of the crown of England and of the duchy of Normandy, and the French monarch at once aided the young prince in the plot. John did homage to the King of France for both Normandy and England, and Philip Augustus proceeded to overrun Richard's dominions in France. The valiant King of England, while returning from the Holy Land in 1192, had been made a captive by the Duke of Austria, in revenge for an insult to the German banner after the capture of Acre, and only obtained his release after a year's captivity by the payment of a heavy ransom by the English people, just as his brother John and the French king believed that their projects were about to be crowned with complete success.

Richard's Captivity in Germany and Release.

Peace between Philip Augustus and Richard the Lion-hearted.

Soon after his release Richard the Lion-hearted made his appearance in Normandy at the head of his barons, recovered the territory which Philip Augustus had wrested from him, and severely defeated the French king at Fretteval, near Vendome, July 15, A. D. 1194. Hostilities proceeded without any decisive result until January, A. D. 1199, when Pope Innocent III. compelled both parties to make peace, and a treaty was concluded by which each king retained his actual possessions.

Richard's Death.

In April of the same year Richard the Lion-hearted was killed while besieging one of his vassals at Chalus, in Normandy, thus relieving Philip Augustus of his ablest adversary. Richard's brother John then became his successor as King of England, Duke of Normandy and lord of all the other vast possessions of the English crown in France.

Philip Augustus and Duke Arthur of Brittany.

Philip Augustus then espoused the cause of Prince Arthur of Brittany, King John's nephew, who disputed with his uncle the crown of England and the sovereignty of Normandy; but the French king did not proceed to an open rupture with John, as he was too deeply involved in a quarrel with the Church to hazard a foreign war.

Second Marriage and Divorce of Philip Augustus.

After the death of his first wife, Isabella of Hainault, Philip Augustus married Ingelberga, daughter of the King of Denmark, a princess described as beautiful, amiable and virtuous; but when he first met her he conceived such an aversion to her that he compelled the French bishops to grant him a divorce. Ingelberga then appealed to Pope Celestine III., who refused to sanction the action of the French bishops in granting the divorce. In spite of the Pope's refusal, the French king married the beautiful Agnes de Méran, daughter of the Marquis of Istria.

His Third Marriage.

Pope Celestine III. vainly sought to turn Philip Augustus from his purpose.

His Quarrel with Pope Innocent III.

The next Pope, Innocent III., who was a pontiff after the style of Hildebrand, commanded the disobedient King of France to put away Agnes and to live with his lawful wife. When the king refused to do so, Pope Innocent III. laid France under an interdict, and the French churches were closed for eight months, during which the people of France were deprived of all their religious rites, except the baptism of infants and the extreme unction for the dying.

His Submission to the Pope.

The growing discontent of the French people obliged their sovereign to yield to the Pope, and he accordingly put away Agnes, who died several months afterward. Philip Augustus reinstated Ingelberga in her outward position, but treated her with the most brutal severity in private. Upon the king's submission, the Pope released France from the interdict.

Prince Arthur of Brittany.

Philip Augustus was prevented by his quarrel with the Pope from taking active measures against King John of England in support of the claims of Prince Arthur of Brittany to the crown of England and the duchy of Normandy. A compromise was therefore agreed upon, by

which the Infanta Blanche of Castile, the niece of King John of England, was married to Prince Louis, the eldest son of King Philip Augustus. John bestowed on his niece as a dowry the sum of thirty thousand marks of silver and the city and county of Evreux, and appointed her the sole heiress of his dominions in France in case he died without direct heirs. Philip Augustus induced Prince Arthur of Brittany to renounce all pretensions to John's dominions and to do homage to John for his duchy of Brittany. After these matters had all been arranged, Prince Louis of France and Blanche of Castile were married, May 23, A. D. 1200.

Marriage of Prince Louis with Blanche of Castile.

But peace was not yet restored. King John of England became violently enamored of the beautiful Isabella of Angoulême, the affianced bride of Hugh de Lusignan, Count de la Marche, and thereupon repudiated his own wife, Hawise of Gloucester, and carried off Isabella and married her. The Count de la Marche demanded justice; and, as this demand was sustained by the nobles of Poitou and Limousin, King Philip Augustus, as the feudal lord of King John and all these nobles, summoned John to appear at his court in Paris, in May, 1202, to answer the charges brought against him. The King of England disregarded the French king's summons, whereupon war ensued between the two kings.

Marriage of King John of England with Isabella of Angouleme.

Philip Augustus instantly invaded Normandy and reduced several important towns. John made an effort to defend his French territories and captured the Count de la Marche and Prince Arthur of Brittany, who had been selected by the French monarch to lead the revolt in Poitou against the King of England.

War of Philip Augustus with John of England.

Arthur's fate is shrouded in mystery, but it was generally believed at that time that King John himself murdered his nephew in the castle of Rouen and cast his body into the Seine, April 3, 1203. This atrocious crime caused John to be bitterly hated by his subjects. Poitou rose in rebellion against him and supported the French monarch. Philip Augustus next invaded Normandy, and by the spring of 1204 he overran the entire duchy and annexed it to the French crown. In 1205 the French king conquered and annexed the counties of Saintonge and Angoulême.

Prince Arthur's Fate.

Conquest of Normandy, Saintonge and Angouleme by Philip Augustus.

In 1206 King John crossed the Channel from England and feebly attempted to recover his lost possessions; but after some insignificant successes he was obliged to make peace, renouncing all claim to the sovereignty of the duchies of Normandy and Brittany and the counties of Anjou, Poitou, Maine and Touraine. Thus only the duchy of Aquitaine and the Channel Islands remained as the sole possessions of the King of England in France. Philip Augustus also acquired the counties of Artois and Vermandois and the duchy of Auvergne, and thus in

Vast Territorial Acquisitions by PhilipAugustus.

Greatness of France.

the course of three years he had almost doubled the size of the French kingdom. These acquisitions of territory made France second among the states of Europe in power and population, the Germano-Roman Empire being first.

Great Power of the King of France.

The King of France was now a powerful territorial sovereign, and had steadily pushed the policy upon which he had conducted his reign —the increase of the royal power at the expense of the power of the French nobles. In the South of France the king's authority and possessions were very much augmented by the Crusade against the Albigenses.

The South of France.

As the people of Southern France were an enlightened community in which the arts and sciences were liberally cultivated and a spirit of free inquiry encouraged, they had never rendered the same blind and unquestioned obedience to the Pope which had characterized their countrymen in the Northern provinces.

Crusade against the Albigenses.

The sect of Albigenses, which had arisen in the course of time in Languedoc, denounced the ambition and corruption of the court of Rome, and denied the Pope's supremacy and the doctrines of the sacrifice of the mass, purgatory and image worship. Pope Innocent III. determined to crush the bold heretics, and turned them over to the Inquisition, giving that horrible tribunal full power to search out and punish their heresy. The Pope's messengers sought to induce Count Raymond VI. of Toulouse, the protector of the Albigenses, to surrender his subjects to the terrible tortures of the Inquisition; and when he refused they threatened him with the Pope's venegance. Indignant at this insult, one of the count's attendants killed one of the Pope's envoys, January, A. D. 1208. Pope Innocent III. thereupon excommunicated Count Raymond VI. and proclaimed a Crusade against him. In 1209 bands of fanatical warriors under Simon de Montfort overran the fertile district of Languedoc and spread death and desolation wherever they appeared, destroying cities, towns and villages, massacring the inhabitants and converting that beautiful region into a vast wilderness. After a war of six years the Crusaders conquered Languedoc, and Count Raymond VI. of Toulouse was deprived of his territories, which were bestowed upon Simon de Montfort, the leader of the Crusaders.

Pope Innocent III. and Count Raymond VI. of Toulouse.

Simon de Montfort and the Conquest of Languedoc.

Pope Innocent III., Philip Augustus and John of England.

In 1213 Pope Innocent III., having laid England under an interdict, invited the French king to undertake the conquest of that country. Philip Augustus accordingly collected a large army at a heavy expense; but as he was about to set out on his expedition he was forbidden by the papal legate to invade England, as King John had in the meantime submitted to the Pope, who thereupon allowed John to rule as his vassal, making England a papal fief. The French king obeyed the Pope's mandate, although he was highly incensed at the Pope's treatment of him.

Philip Augustus then marched northward against the Count of Flanders, who had renounced his allegiance to the King of France and formed an alliance with King Otho IV. of Germany, the nephew of King John of England. This action of the Count of Flanders caused Philip Augustus to side with Frederick of Hohenstaufen, afterwards the Emperor Frederick II., which was a great gain for the young German prince.

Philip Augustus and the Count of Flanders.

Philip Augustus gained important advantages over the Count of Flanders, who endeavored to check him by allying himself with King Otho IV. of Germany, King John of England, and all the great nobles of the Netherlands. With an inferior force Philip Augustus won a great and decisive victory over the allied German, English and Flemish troops, one hundred and fifty thousand strong, under King Otho IV. and the Earl of Salisbury, King John's illegitimate brother, at Bouvines, between Lille and Tournay, August 27, A. D. 1214. This was one of the hardest fought battles of history, and the King of France, who made the attack, routed his foes with great loss, taking many of their leaders prisoners, among whom were the Count of Flanders and the Earl of Salisbury. The French king's victory put an end to the power of Otho IV. of Germany, and established his rival, Frederick II., on the German throne.

Battle of Bouvines.

Philip Augustus's Victory.

King John of England, who had completely failed to effect anything, and had retreated within the farthest limits of Poitou, was granted a truce for five years on payment of sixty thousand marks. The Counts of Flanders and Boulogne forfeited their fiefs to the French crown, and the Count of Flanders passed the remainder of his life in captivity. The chief result of the war was the moral prestige acquired by the French crown and kingdom, which thereafter ranked next to the great Germano-Roman Empire.

Losses of His Foes.

After King John had returned to England the barons of that kingdom forced him to grant Magna Charta, the foundation and bulwark of English constitutional liberty. Pope Innocent III. bitterly denounced the Great Charter and forbade the English king and his barons to observe it, on penalty of excommunication. The English barons defied and disobeyed the Pope, and the civil war between them and their king was renewed. Driven to despair by their unscrupulous sovereign, the barons invited Prince Louis, son of the King of France, to come to England and assume the crown of that kingdom. Philip Augustus consented very reluctantly to allow his son to assume the English crown, and Louis embarked at Calais for England in May, 1216. He landed at Sandwich, where he was welcomed with joy, and was conducted to London and proclaimed King of England in right of his wife, Blanche of Castile, granddaughter of Henry Plantagenet. John retreated to

John of England and His Barons, and Pope Innocent III.

Prince Louis of France and John of England.

the North of England, and his cause grew so weak that Louis seemed on a fair way to be successful.

Prince Louis Deserted by the English Barons.

John's sudden death, October 19, 1216, instantly changed the entire situation, as England was freed from her tyrant, and his son, the legitimate heir to the English crown, was an innocent child. The English barons quickly deserted the French prince whom they had invited to become their sovereign, and espoused the cause of the young King Henry III. Thus abandoned by his partisans, the situation of Prince Louis became very critical. The Pope excommunicated him and his adherents, and his father refused to come to his aid. He was defeated in several battles on land and sea, and was shut up in London, where he was forced to capitulate and to renounce all claim to the crown of England, when he was allowed to return to France.

Reconquest of Languedoc by Count Raymond VI., of Toulouse.

In 1216 Count Raymond VI. of Toulouse and his chivalric son Raymond seized the sword to recover their lost inheritance. They were joyfully received by their people, and in the fall of 1217 they triumphantly entered Toulouse, their capital. Simon de Montfort at once laid siege to Toulouse, but was slain in June, 1218. All Languedoc at once acknowledged the Count of Toulouse as its ruler and expelled the son and heir of Simon de Montfort. Pope Honorius III. proclaimed another Crusade, and invited the King of France to seize the dominions of Count Raymond VI. Philip Augustus sent an army under his son Louis into Languedoc, but after an inglorious failure the prince abandoned the Crusade. Count Raymond VI. died in 1222, and was succeeded in his estates by his son, Count Raymond VII.

Another Crusade against the Albigenses.

France's Unification under Philip Augustus.

Under Philip Augustus the political condition of France underwent an entire change. Before his reign the King of France had been merely the feudal chief of a confederacy of princes, but now he became an absolute monarch. Thus Philip Augustus was the first king of the national monarchy of France, because under him France first assumed the character of a united nation.

Good Character and Abilily of Philip Augustus.

Philip Augustus was one of the ablest and best sovereigns that ever reigned over France. He was prudent, energetic, firm and persevering. He governed his subjects with wisdom and justice, however selfish his policy may have been toward others. He was surpassed in these qualities by few, if any, of his successors. He was a generous friend to the city of Paris, which he enlarged and refortified, and adorned with noble edifices. He liberally encouraged the rising schools of Paris, and endeavored to make that city the intellectual center of Europe. He did much to establish a regular administration of justice throughout France, and to introduce a proper fiscal system.

Louis VIII., A. D. 1223–1226.

Upon the death of Philip Augustus, in 1223, his son Louis VIII. became King of France. The new reign began with a war with King

ST. LOUIS AT JERUSALEM

From the Painting by A. Cabanel

Henry III. of England. After two campaigns a truce of five years was concluded, and Louis VIII. devoted his attention to the more important struggle with the Albigenses in Languedoc. The Council of Bourges, in 1225, had excommunicated Count Raymond VII. of Toulouse, and had transferred his territories to King Louis VIII. In the summer of 1226 Louis VIII. led a large army into Languedoc, and by the middle of autumn he was in possession of all the important towns except Toulouse, which was still held by Count Raymond VII. At the end of the campaign Louis VIII. died at Montpensier, in Auvergne, November 8, A. D. 1226; leaving the French crown to his young son Louis IX., generally known as St. Louis.

War with the Albigenses.

Louis IX., or St. Louis, A. D. 1226–1270.

During the minority of St. Louis the French kingdom was ruled by his mother, Blanche of Castile, as regent. Blanche was a woman of strong good sense and firmness, and governed wisely and well. Just after the death of her husband some of the leading nobles of France formed a coalition for her overthrow, but she succeeded in maintaining her authority, and after a contest of five years reduced the rebellious barons to submission, A. D. 1231.

Regency of Blanche of Castile.

The following anecdote fully illustrates the good character of Queen Blanche: Some villagers, who were serfs of the priests of Notre Dame, were unable to pay certain contributions which their lords had demanded of them. The angry priests thrust the poor serfs into prison. The prison was so small that the inmates were scarcely able to move, and were almost suffocated for want of air.

Imprisonment of Poor Villagers.

When Blanche heard of this she was very much shocked and sent to the priests, requesting them to release the imprisoned serfs, and offering to be security for the money demanded of the poor men. The priests were highly indignant, declaring that the queen-mother had no right to interfere between them and their serfs. The priests then seized the wives and children of the poor men, and crowded them into the same place, where many were suffocated to death. Thereupon Blanche repaired to the prison with her attendants and ordered them to force open the doors. Her attendants were so fearful of offending the churchmen that no one obeyed her. The queen-mother herself then took the ax and commenced breaking open the door. Her boldness so encouraged her attendants that they came to her aid, and the doors were soon forced open. The poor prisoners were brought out, and many of them fainted when they felt the fresh air. Those who were able to speak showered their blessings upon her. Blanche's kindness did not end here, as she made the released serfs forever free.

Queen Blanche's Interference.

Release of the Villagers.

During the regency of Queen Blanche the war with the Albigenses was ended, to the advantage of the French crown. A treaty was signed at Paris in 1229 by young King St. Louis, who had been crowned in

End of the Albigensian War and Annexation of Languedoc to the French Crown.

the meantime, and by the papal legate and Count Raymond VII. of Toulouse. The Count of Toulouse was granted a small part of his former possessions in fief during the remainder of his life. At his death this territory was to be conferred on Alfonso, Count of Poitiers, brother of King St. Louis, who was to marry Jeanne, the only daughter of Count Raymond VII. The rest of Languedoc was definitely annexed to the French crown. The marriage between Alfonso and Jeanne occurred in 1241. For the purpose of consolidating the conquered land, the Inquisition was established at Toulouse in 1229, and for a long period the people of Southern France were at the mercy of this horrible tribunal and groaned under its tortures.

Inquisition at Toulouse.

Marriage of St. Louis with Marguerite of Provence.

In 1234, when St. Louis was nineteen years of age, he married Marguerite, daughter of Raymond Beranger IV., Count of Provence, a bride of thirteen years, selected for him by his mother. Queen Blanche had carefully educated her son; and, though she had too much inclined him toward superstition, she had succeeded in laying the foundation of the noble character which was in the future to render this good sovereign deservedly renowned.

Poitou and Auvergne Assigned to Prince Alfonso.

In 1241, when his brother Alfonso had married Jeanne of Toulouse, St. Louis assigned this prince the county of Poitou and the duchy of Auvergne, in accordance with the provisions of their father's will. This action of the young king brought to a crisis a formidable conspiracy among the barons of Poitou against the sovereign claims of St. Louis and his family, based on the former connection of Poitou with the royal race of Plantagenet, which occupied the throne of England. The conspiracy was headed by the Count de la Marche, whom Queen Isabella had married within a few months after the death of King John of England. Isabella desired to recover the former French possessions of the English crown for her son, the weak King Henry III. of England.

Plot of the Barons of Poitou.

Battle of Saintes.

St. Louis took the field to uphold his brother's claims, and King Henry III. of England crossed over to France to aid his supporters; but the English and their French allies were badly defeated in the desperate battle of Saintes, July 22, A. D. 1242. The rebel barons were reduced to submission, and Henry III. of England was obliged to accept a truce of five years, which was signed in March, 1243. In accordance with this treaty all of Aquitaine as far as the Gironde was annexed to the French crown.

Rebel Barons Subdued.

Increase of Royal Power and Decline of Feudalism.

An important result of this war was the loss of the independence of the feudal nobility of France, and the firm establishment of the supremacy of the French crown over its vassals. From this time feudalism declined in France, and the royal power gradually grew stronger. In 1246 the French crown was further strengthened by the marriage of

the king's brother Charles, Count of Anjou and Maine, with Beatrix, the heiress of Provence.

Illness of St. Louis.

In 1244 St. Louis was seized with a violent illness. As he lay in a state of lethargy he imagined that a voice from heaven told him to take up the cross against the Moslems, and scarcely had he recovered his speech than he made a vow to lead a Crusade. His mother and all his wisest counselors vehemently opposed the enterprise, but the king considered his vow a sacred bond, which men were not permitted to unloose. After devoting four years to putting his kingdom in order, he carried out his project.

His Vow.

St. Louis and the Seventh Crusade.

In August, 1248, St. Louis led the Seventh Crusade; and, leaving the government to be administered by his mother as regent, he sailed for Palestine, taking his queen and his brothers with him. But, instead of leading the expedition to the Holy Land, he invaded Egypt; and, after taking Damietta, he was made a prisoner by the Sultan of Egypt, but was released on the payment of a heavy ransom, and a ten years' truce was concluded. St. Louis returned to France after the death of his mother in 1253, arriving in Paris in September, 1254.

His Captivity and Ransom.

Wise Reign of St. Louis.

For the next sixteen years France was blessed with peace, and greatly prospered under the wise government of her good king. Justice was scrupulously administered throughout the kingdom, and all classes reposed such confidence in the king that they accepted his decisions without question. St. Louis was accessible to all his subjects, even the humblest. He patiently investigated and redressed all complaints brought before him. He ruled with moderation, but also with firmness, and gradually but permanently strengthened the power of the French crown.

His Good Acts.

St. Louis, the best of the Capets, put an end to feudal violence; established the equality of nobles and serfs before the law, instituting royal courts of justice for the redress of individual wrongs; and gave France a new code of laws, and placed her in the front rank of the powers of Europe.

His Good Character.

St. Louis had a truly upright and benevolent disposition. His temper was mild and forgiving, but also brave and firm. No man had more meekness in prosperity, nor more fortitude in adversity. His integrity was inflexible under all circumstances, and he was governed solely by religious principle. His piety did not deprive him of the qualities worthy of a king. His liberality was wholly consistent with a wise economy. The king's revenues at that time arose from his own estates, not from the purses of his subjects. His grandeur depended upon a judicious economy. Unlike his predecessors, St. Louis did not consider the founding of a monastery or the erection of a church an expiation for sin. When speaking of this subject, he was accustomed to

saying: "Living men are the stones of God's temple, and the church is more beautified by good manners than by rich walls."

His Wise Rule and His Code.

St. Louis maintained great state and regularity at his court, but in his own dress he preserved the plainness of a private individual. He earnestly applied himself to the reformation of abuses. Under the shade of an oak in the forest of Vincennes, near Paris, he heard the complaints of his subjects and redressed their wrongs. The code of laws which he framed still goes by his name.

His Impartial Administration of Justice.

St. Louis administered justice with the strictest impartiality. His brother Charles, Count of Anjou and Provence, had a dispute with one of his vassals. The cause was tried before the count's officers, and a decision was of course given in his favor. The vassal appealed to the king's court, and this so angered Charles that he cast him into prison. Upon hearing of this, the king instantly summoned his brother into his presence, and sternly addressed him thus: "Because you are my brother, do you suppose you are above the laws?" The king at once ordered Charles to release his vassal and to let the law take its course. The count obeyed, but his vassal could not find a lawyer with courage sufficient to undertake his cause. When the king heard of this he appointed an agent for that purpose. The cause was discussed with the strictest impartiality, and a decision was rendered in favor of the vassal, who was reinstated in his possessions.

The Parliament of Paris.

Under all the Capets a council had existed, consisting of all the king's vassals and the officers of his household. The constitution of this council was now changed, and it became a superior court with the name of the *Parliament of Paris*, to which appeal might be made from all the other courts of France. This court was likewise employed to register the king's edicts. Sometimes the court remonstrated against the royal edicts, and sometimes they positively refused to sanction them by registering them. In this case the king was obliged to appear before the court and order it to register his edict. There was then no other alternative for the court than to obey, as it was a maxim of French law that the power of all officers and magistrates was suspended in the king's presence. When the king attended the Parliament of Paris his seat was on a couch under a canopy, and on such occasions he was said to hold a *Bed of Justice.*

St. Louis Restores Some French Territories to Henry III. of England.

Feeling that his illustrious grandfather, Philip Augustus, had unjustly acquired some of the French possessions of the English crown, St. Louis voluntarily restored to King Henry III. of England in 1259 the viscounty of Limousin and the counties of Perigord, Quercy and Saintonge. The King of England in return renounced his claims to the duchy of Normandy and the counties of Anjou, Poitou, Maine and Touraine. The English king and his barons, after years of civil war

between them, agreed to submit their controversies to the arbitration of St. Louis, thus paying the good French monarch the highest tribute in their power.

Charles of Anjou, King of Sicily.

In 1262 Pope Urban IV. offered St. Louis the crown of Sicily, but the good king refused it because it was not rightfully his, nor would he permit his son Robert to accept it. The king's brother Charles, Count of Anjou and Provence, was not so scrupulous, and readily accepted the Pope's offer. St. Louis did not discourage his brother, but neither did he give him any active assistance.

Crowned by Pope Clement IV.

Charles went to Rome in 1265, where Pope Clement IV., the successor of Pope Urban IV., crowned him King of Sicily. Charles promised to hold Sicily as a papal fief, that the island kingdom should revert to the Pope in case Charles left no direct heirs, and that it should never be held by the German Emperor. But Charles was obliged to conquer his new kingdom, in which his only partisans were a few native traitors.

Crusade against Manfred of Hohenstaufen, King of Sicily.

The Pope provided him with an army by proclaiming a crusade against Manfred of Hohenstaufen, the valiant son of the German Emperor Frederick II., the legitimate King of Sicily, and by levying the tax usually assessed upon churchmen for the prosecution of a holy war.

Battle of Benevento.

Charles of Anjou assembled a large army of Frenchmen, with which he invaded Sicily and defeated and killed Manfred in the bloody battle of Benevento, A. D. 1266, thus becoming master of Sicily. Manfred's brother Conradine attempted to make himself King of Sicily, but was

Conradine's Defeat, Captivity and Death.

defeated by Charles of Anjou in 1268, taken prisoner and beheaded by order of Charles at Naples. Charles afterward aspired to the sovereignty of all Italy and to the imperial crown, but his ambitious schemes were utterly thwarted by Pope Gregory X.; and the next Pope, Nicholas III., compelled Charles to resign his offices of Vicar of Tuscany and Senator of Rome.

Schemes of Charles of Anjou.

St Louis and the Eighth Crusade.

In 1270 St. Louis undertook the Eighth Crusade, to rescue the Christians in Palestine from the cruelty of Sultan Bibars; but instead of proceeding to the Holy Land, he sailed to Africa to attack the Moors of Tunis. After landing at Tunis, the French monarch besieged that city; but a plague which broke out in the French camp carried St. Louis and many of his soldiers to their graves. This worthy king died

His Death.

August 25, A. D. 1270, at the age of fifty-six, and after a reign of forty-four years.

Goodness and Influence of St. Louis.

St. Louis was not a great king according to the ordinary standard, but he was an example of the inherent power of high moral and religious principle faithfully and consistently put in practice through a whole life-time. He was neither a great general nor a man of learning. He often forbore to seize advantages which rightly belonged to him, because of his extreme moderation and conscientiousness; but he

exercised a greater influence upon Europe than any other sovereign of his time, and no monarch was ever more fortunate in promoting the advancement and happiness of his subjects. Voltaire thus briefly but justly summed up his character: "It is not given to man to carry virtue to a higher point." The Church rewarded the merits of St. Louis; as Pope Boniface VIII. canonized him as a saint in August, 1297, twenty-seven years after his death; wherefore his title.

Troubadours and Trouveres.

During the period of the Crusades—embracing the twelfth and thirteenth centuries—the *Troubadours* and *Trouvères* flourished in France. The Provençal language, formed from the Latin as learned and spoken by the Burgundian conquerors of the region between the Alps and the Rhone, possessed the first mediæval literature of Europe; and its improvement dates from the accession of a Count of Barcelona as King of Burgundy and Provence in A. D. 1092, and the subsequent introduction of a refined taste acquired from the Arabs of Spain. The Troubadours were the poets of the South of France, and the earliest of them were natives of Provence and wrote in their native dialect. Thenceforth the Provençal language became the language of poetry, and was universally studied and admired for several centuries; after which it suddenly ceased to be cultivated, and is now obsolete, though there are immense numbers of Provençal manuscripts in the Royal Library of Paris.

The Provencal Language and the Troubadours.

Songs of the Troubadours.

The Troubadours were usually persons of little education, who had the faculty of rhyming, which they derived from the Arabs of Spain. They possessed the happy art of fascinating their hearers by the harmony and simplicity of their verses. Their works were highly prized, and their visits were acceptable at court and castle. They roved about at will, being welcomed wherever they went. Their songs were mostly filled with complaints of the cruelty of the ladies whom they professed to admire, and with compliments to their beauty; and the flattery which these songs contained rendered them more delightful to those for whom they were intended. The songs of the Troubadours derived new inspiration from the Crusades; and the heroes of those holy wars—among whom was King Richard the Lion-hearted of England—were as proud of their fame as poets as they were of their renown as knights.

The Trouveres.

The Trouvères, or poets of the North of France, arose a century later than the Troubadours, or about the close of the twelfth century, when they originated those tales of chivalry which afforded nearly all the secular reading in the Middle Ages. Their language was formed from the Latin spoken by the Franks who conquered Northern Gaul, and differed as much from the Provençal, or language of Southern France, as the Burgundian dialect differed from the Frankish. Both dialects were called *Romance*—a name which in the course of time was

Their Language.

applied to the class of compositions most characteristic of the first French writers. The *Romance Wallon*, spoken north of the Loire, was likewise called the *Langue d' Oui;* while the *Romance Provençal* was named the *Langue d' Oc*. The Romance Wallon, or Langue d' Oui, very much resembled the modern French language. The adventurous spirit of the Normans is clearly displayed in the Romances of the Trouvères.

Romance Dialects.

An acquaintance with the poetry and romances of the Troubadours and Trouvères constituted an essential part of the education of French gentlemen and ladies during the Middle Ages. The taste for poetry was carried to such excess that every lady eminent for rank or beauty had her poet. While the gentlemen had their tournaments and trials at arms, the ladies had their *courts of love* and trials of wit. At these meetings all poets were challenged to appear and to recite their verses. Judges were appointed to decide on the merits of the competitors, and prizes were awarded to the successful poet with great parade and pomp. These courts of love were the resort of the idle of both sexes, and were presided over by a lady of the highest rank. In the progress of time they assumed more solemnity, and difficult cases of precedence and nice points of etiquette and lovers' quarrels were submitted to their decision; and the most stubborn knight was not bold enough to disregard their injunctions.

Courts of Love.

St. Louis was succeeded as King of France by his eldest son PHILIP THE BOLD, who made a mournful entry into Paris, May 21, 1271, after his return from Africa, having brought with him the dead bodies of his illustrious father; his wife Isabella; his sister Isabella, Queen of Navarre; and his uncle Alfonso, Count of Poitou and Toulouse, and his wife Jeanne. The new king's character was quite a contrast to that of his father. His education had been neglected, and his character was feeble, suspicious, and destitute of any elements of greatness. The death of Alfonso and Jeanne without heirs gave all their vast possessions to the king. The Pope now received a portion of these territories —the city of Avignon and the surrounding county of Venaissin—in accordance with an agreement with Count Raymond VII. of Toulouse; and these territories remained in the possession of the Holy See until the great French Revolution of 1789.

Philip the Bold, A.D. 1270–1285.

Acquisition of Poitou and Toulouse.

Avignon and Venaissin Ceded to the Pope.

The possessions of the French crown were likewise increased by the death of the king's brothers, Jean Tristan and Pierre, without heirs, which gave the crown the counties of Valois and Alençon. In 1274 King Henry Crassus of Navarre died; and his widow, a French princess, fled to the court of Philip the Bold for protection. The French king received her kindly, and when her daughter reached a marriageable age he married her to his son and heir, thus uniting the crowns of France

Acquisition of Valois, Alencon, Navarre and Champagne.

and Navarre. The large county of Champagne likewise belonged to the crown of Navarre, and thus came into the possession of the son of King Philip the Bold.

Philip the Bold's War with Aragon.

In 1284 Philip the Bold made war against Aragon to sustain his uncle Count Charles of Anjou and Provence, King of Sicily. The French had incurred the bitter hostility of the Sicilians because of their cruel and tyrannical treatment of them, and the oppressed Sicilians formed a conspiracy to transfer the crown of their kingdom to King Pedro III. of Aragon, who claimed it in right of his wife Constance, the daughter of Manfred, the last of the Hohenstaufen Kings of Sicily. Pedro III. solicited the assistance of the Eastern, or Greek Emperor, Michael Palæólogus, who promised to aid him. John di Procida, a Sicilian noble, who had been grievously wronged by the French, was the leader of the conspiracy.

Sicilian Revolt in Favor of Pedro III. of Aragon.

Massacre of the Sicilian Vespers.

The secret of the plot was kept for two years by the conspirators, who comprised a great portion of the people of Sicily. Charles of Anjou was partially aware of his peril, and was making ready to meet it, when a chance occurrence precipitated hostilities. On Easter day, A. D. 1282, a French soldier in the suburbs of Palermo grossly insulted a bride in the presence of her friends. He was attacked with fury, and the cry of "Death to the French" resounded through the streets of the city, just as the church bells sounded for vespers, or evening prayers. The shout spread like lightning through Palermo's streets, and the inhabitants assailed and massacred the unsuspecting French. So great was the slaughter in Palermo that in the course of two hours but one Frenchman escaped with his life. In a few days eight thousand Frenchmen were massacred throughout Sicily, and that island became an independent kingdom under King Pedro III. of Aragon. This frightful massacre has ever since been designated in history as the *Sicilian Vespers.*

Philip the Bold's Unsuccessful Invasion of Aragon.

Pope Martin IV. excommunicated King Pedro III. and offered his Kingdom of Aragon to Charles, the second son of the King of France. Philip the Bold invaded Aragon in the spring of 1285, to place his son on the throne of that kingdom. The Sicilian Vespers had aroused intense indignation in France, and the French king was heartily sustained by his subjects. After invading Aragon, Philip the Bold besieged and took Gerona, which had made a defense of almost three months; but the capture of the French fleet by De Lauria so disheartened Philip that he retreated back into his own kingdom. During his retreat he died at Perpignan, October 5, 1285, at the age of forty, after a reign of fifteen years. King Pedro III. of Aragon died shortly afterward, November 11, 1285, of the same malignant fever that had ended the life of Philip the Bold.

Philip the Fair, A. D. 1285–1314.

Philip the Fair succeeded his father, Philip the Bold, as King of France (A. D. 1285). His reign of twenty-nine years is one of the most important in French history. He so increased the royal power in France that it became a despotism; the independence of the great vassals being totally destroyed, so that they were reduced to complete submission to the crown. The king persistently advanced the bourgeoisie, or middle classes, whom he protected against the nobility, but whom he also made subservient instruments in effecting his absolute rule.

The Parliament of Paris and the States-General.

In the reign of Philip the Fair feudalism in France began to give way to civil institutions. Throughout the kingdom justice was administered in the king's name, and the Parliament of Paris became the recognized organ of the supreme central administration. The States-General, or the great legislative body of the French nation, seems to have been in this reign, in its modern constitutional form, composed of the three distinct and equal orders, the nobles, the clergy, and the *tiers état*, or third estate, consisting of the representatives of the French people. Philip the Fair likewise struck the first successful blow at the papal power which had held every state in Europe in subjection, and shattered it so thoroughly that it ceased to be formidable.

Peace with Aragon.

In the beginning of his reign Philip the Fair ended the war which his father had commenced with Aragon. His brother, Charles of Valois, on whom the Pope had conferred the crown of Aragon, relinquished his claims to it; and the rightful King of Aragon agreed that his brother James should restore Sicily to the house of Anjou reigning in Naples. This could not be accomplished, and Sicily remained independent of the French dynasty of Naples. This arrangement was effected by the mediation of Philip's kinsman, King Edward I. of England.

Sicily Lost to the Anjou Dynasty.

Philip the Fair's Quarrel with Edward I. of England.

Philip the Fair took advantage of the English king's difficulties with Scotland to make an effort to seize the duchy of Guienne, or Aquitaine, under the pretext of a quarrel between some English and Norman barons at Bayonne, which led to a furious war between the merchant seamen of the two nations, unsanctioned by either government. The English obtained such advantages in 1293 that the French king interfered, summoning the King of England as Duke of Aquitaine to appear before him in January, 1294, to answer for the unauthorized conduct of his subjects.

Philip the Fair's Seizure of Aquitaine, or Guienne.

King Edward I. appeared before his French suzerain by his representative, who was his brother Edmund, Earl of Lancaster. Philip the Fair demanded that the duchy of Aquitaine, or Guienne, should be placed in his possession until the dispute could be settled; but when he had obtained possession of the chief towns of the duchy he threw off the mask, declared Edward I. contumacious because he did not appear

in person, and pronounced all the English king's fiefs in France forfeited to the French crown.

Philip the Fair's War with Edward I. of England.

King Edward instantly took the field to maintain his rights, and was aided by the Duke of Brittany, Count Guy of Flanders, and Adolf of Nassau, King of Germany. The war commenced in Gascony in 1294, and lasted two years, with the general advantage on the side of the French monarch. The English king was prevented by his war with Scotland from making a determined effort, and was likewise hampered by frequent revolts of the Welsh. Pope Boniface VIII. endeavored to bring about a peace, but failed, and aroused the enmity of the French king.

Peace between France and England.

In 1297 Philip the Fair invaded Flanders with a large army and reduced that province to submission. Pope Boniface VIII. again offered his mediation, which was accepted by all parties, and a treaty of peace between England and France was signed in June, A. D. 1299. In accordance with the terms of this treaty, King Edward I. married Marguerite, the eldest sister of Philip the Fair; while Edward's son Edward, the first English Prince of Wales, was affianced to Philip's daughter Isabella, then only six years old. By this arrangement, the King of England abandoned the cause of his ally, Count Guy of Flanders; and the King of France left his allies, the Scots, to the vengeance of the English monarch.

Flanders Reduced to Submission by Philip the Fair.

By this peace with England, Flanders was left completely at the mercy of King Philip the Fair, and in A. D. 1300 a large French army under Charles of Valois invaded that province. Donai, Bethune and Damme surrendered without offering any resistance. Count Guy of Flanders threw himself into Ghent, where he prepared to resist the French; but when he perceived his hopeless situation he yielded to the representations of Charles of Valois, who assured him that the King of France was kindly disposed toward him. The Count of Flanders thus surrendered the city of Ghent, with himself, his two sons and his leading nobles.

Imprisonment of the Flemish Nobles.

The victorious Charles of Valois at once sent his prisoners to Paris, where they were treated with a harshness which might have been expected from the unscrupulous character of Philip the Fair. Count Guy and his two sons were imprisoned in the gloomy fortress of the Chatelet, and the Flemish barons were confined in the various fortresses near Paris. The French king declared the county of Flanders forfeited, and annexed it to the French crown.

Acquisition of Flanders.

Philip the Fair and the County of Flanders.

A few months afterward King Philip the Fair visited Flanders with his queen, Jeanne of Navarre, and was joyfully received by the Flemings, who had never liked Count Guy. The county of Flanders was one of the richest prizes that had ever fallen to the lot of the French

monarch, and Philip the Fair returned to Paris in high glee, leaving Jacques de Châtillon as his viceroy in Flanders. The new viceroy was well suited to represent the most unscrupulous of sovereigns.

French Oppression and Exactions in Flanders.

The Flemings soon discovered that by accepting the King of France as their sovereign they had placed themselves in the power of a stern tyrant, who treated their political privileges with contempt. His exactions soon commenced crippling their commerce, and the insolent French viceroy trampled upon their liberties. At length a determined blow was struck for their freedom. One night in March, A. D. 1302, the tocsin sounded at midnight in Bruges, whereupon the citizens seized their arms and massacred all the French in the city, three thousand in number. The French viceroy, Jacques de Châtillon, escaped and fled to Paris.

Flemish Massacre of the French.

Battle of Courtrai.

King Philip the Fair instantly sent an army under Count Robert of Artois into Flanders to reduce the revolted burghers to submission. This splendid army was defeated by the revolted Flemings at Courtrai, July 11, 1302; so many of the French knights and higher officers being killed that their gilt spurs were collected by the bushel after the battle; while Count Robert of Artois, the French commander, and Jacques de Châtillon, the viceroy, were also among the slain.

Flemish Defeats.

The King of France met this disaster with characteristic resolution, and immediately went to work to repair it. He arranged a year's truce with the Flemings, and during this truce he made such preparations that at its expiration he was enabled to take the field with an army of seventy thousand well-equipped troops, while he attacked the northern coast of Flanders with a fleet of Genoese galleys, which he had taken into his pay. The Flemings were defeated by this Genoese fleet in a naval engagement, and the French king achieved a most important victory over the Flemish army eighteen days after the campaign had commenced, August 18, 1304.

The Flemings Secure an Honorable Peace.

The Flemings were a more resolute race than Philip the Fair had supposed. They rallied from their reverse in three weeks' time, and again confronted him with an army of sixty thousand men. Their determined patriotism won his admiration, and he offered them honorable terms of peace. By the treaty signed June 5, 1305, the French king assigned to the eldest son of the late Count Guy de Dampierre the county of Flanders in fief, and promised to respect the ancient liberties and privileges of the Flemings. The Flemings paid the French monarch a large indemnity for the expenses of the war, and placed four of their chief towns and all of French Flanders in his possession as a guaranty of the payment of the indemnity. Thus ended the first struggle of the valiant burghers of Flanders for the preservation of their liberties.

Philip the Fair's Quarrel with Pope Boniface VIII.

While engaged in his struggle with the Flemings, Philip the Fair was also occupied with a bitter quarrel with Pope Boniface VIII., one of the ablest of the Roman pontiffs. This fierce quarrel had commenced near the close of the thirteenth century, but it had not attained its full strength until the beginning of the fourteenth century.

Taxation of the French Clergy.

Pope Boniface VIII. was a man of haughty, overbearing temper, and endeavored to recover for the Papacy the power which it had wielded under Gregory VII. and Innocent III. But King Philip the Fair had a better understanding of the spirit of the age, and knew that such an effort on the part of the reigning Pope was hopeless. The French king did not hesitate to advance the royal power at the expense of the Church. It appeared only right in the eyes of the King of France and his subjects that the clergy, who were in possession of a very considerable part of the wealth of the kingdom, should bear their proportion of the public burdens.

The Pope's Proffered Mediation between France and England.

The war between Philip the Fair and King Edward I. of England had involved almost all the other nations of Europe, whose sovereigns sided with one or the other of the warring monarchs. The Pope endeavored to act as umpire between the French and English kings, but his proffered mediation was declined, and the war proceeded with increased violence.

His Bulls against the Two Kings and the Taxation of the Clergy.

This furnished Boniface VIII. the opportunity for which he had long been watching; and in 1296 he summoned both kings to appear before him to answer for their unjust exactions, and issued a bull forbidding the clergy to pay any tax or subsidy to any secular ruler without the consent of the Holy See, also forbidding any such ruler to demand or accept such payment on penalty of excommunication.

Philip the Fair Cuts off the Pope's Revenue from France.

King Philip the Fair retaliated by issuing a decree closing his kingdom to all strangers, forbidding all appeals to another potentate, and prohibiting the exportation from the French kingdom, without the royal consent, of any coined or uncoined gold or silver, plate, jewels, arms, horses or military stores. The Pope was not named in the king's edict, but it was aimed at him, as the proceeding rendered it impossible for him to receive the large revenue paid him annually by the French clergy. Alarmed by the prospect of losing this revenue, the haughty pontiff receded in some degree from his position; and an apparent reconciliation was effected between Boniface VIII. and Philip the Fair, but this seeming peace was of short duration.

Renewal of the Quarrel between Pope Boniface VIII. and Philip the Fair.

The Jubilee of A. D. 1300, in which Pope Boniface VIII. saw Rome filled with pious pilgrims from every part of Christendom, caused him to form a false estimate of the moral strength of the Papacy in Europe, and so flattered his pride that he renewed all his pretensions and most indiscreetly undertook measures by which he hoped to force the King

of France to submission. But the Pope had to deal with a monarch who scrupled at nothing to accomplish his ends, who did not fear the Pope's spiritual weapons, and who was very well aware that the time had passed when those instruments could be employed against the sovereign of a compact and powerful kingdom.

The Pope's Legate Arrested by Philip the Fair.

Philip the Fair had demanded homage from the Viscount of Narbonne and the Bishop of Mauguelonne, who held their fiefs of the Church. The Pope forbade them to obey the French king, and sent the Bishop of Pamiers to France as his legate to settle the dispute. This prelate was personally obnoxious to Philip the Fair, who suspected him of treasonable designs. The legate treated Philip with such insolence that the king arrested him and gave him into the custody of the Archbishop of Narbonne.

The Pope's Bull Burned by Philip the Fair.

Thereupon the Pope issued a bull couched in language the most insulting to Philip the Fair, summoning the French bishops to meet in council at Rome and there arrange a plan for the settlement of the disorders which he professed afflicted France. The French king caused the Pope's bull to be publicly burned in Paris, and for the first time summoned the States-General, the grand council of the French nation; and that legislative body convened in April, A. D. 1302, and enthusiastically pledged the king the support of the nation in his controversy with the Pope.

States-General Summoned.

The Pope's Unam Sanctam.

Several months afterward Boniface VIII. issued the celebrated bull *Unam Sanctam*, wherein he asserted the papal claims with more than his former audacity, saying: "There are two swords, the spiritual and the temporal. * * * Both are in the power of the Church; the one, the spiritual, to be used *by* the Church; the other, the material, *for* the Church; the former that of the priests; the latter that of kings and soldiers, to be wielded at the command and by the sufferance of the priests. One sword must be under the other, the temporal under the spiritual. * * * The spiritual instituted the temporal power, and judges whether that power is well exercised. * * * If the temporal power errs it is judged by the spiritual. * * * We therefore assert, define and pronounce that it is necessary to salvation to believe that every human being is subject to the Pontiff of Rome."

Excommunication and Retaliation.

The Pope excommunicated Philip the Fair, April 13, A. D. 1303. The French king retaliated by charging Boniface VIII. with a series of scandalous crimes and demanding that he should be tried by a general council of the Church.

Philip the Fair's Bold Scheme.

Philip the Fair now determined to get Boniface VIII. into his power by seizing the Pope's person. It is uncertain whether the King of France intended to punish His Holiness or merely to prevent him from committing any additional acts of hostility, but it is quite clear that

he meant to seize him. Boniface VIII. announced that on September 8 (A. D. 1303) he would publish a bull deposing Philip the Fair and forbidding his subjects to render him any further allegiance. Two of the French king's partisans—William de Nogaret, an eminent lawyer, whose ancestors had been persecuted by the Inquisition at Toulouse; and Sciarra Colonna, a younger son of the noble Roman family of Colonna—determined to carry out the king's wishes without delay, but it does not appear that they had any orders from the king to that effect.

French Seizure and Captivity of Pope Boniface VIII.

The Pope was then residing in his native city, Anagni. De Nogaret and Colonna hastened to Italy, and at the head of several hundred armed men stormed the Pope's palace, compelled his defenders to surrender, and forced their way into the venerable pontiff's presence, finding His Holiness seated on his throne, crowned with the tiara, arrayed in the stole of St. Peter, and grasping the keys in his hand. The bold Pope did not flinch in the presence of his foes, though deserted by his friends. Nogaret overwhelmed his illustrious captive with the most furious reproaches; and Colonna is said to have struck him with his iron gauntlet, and to have been prevented from killing him only with the greatest difficulty. The captive Pope was then set on a vicious horse, with his face towards the animal's tail, and led through the town to prison.

Forcible Release and Death of Pope Boniface VIII.

Two days afterward the people of Anagni rose against Nogaret and Colonna and their soldiers, drove them from the town, and released the Pope, who hastened to Rome to take vengeance on his enemies. Mortification at his humiliation and his ungovernable temper, along with the infirmities of age, hastened the death of the venerable Boniface VIII., who died October 11, A. D. 1303. Some accounts tell us that he was seized with a fever which ended in frenzy and death. Other writers, perhaps more reliable, speak of him "as sadly but quietly breathing his last, surrounded by eight cardinals, having confessed the faith and received the consoling offices of the Church."

Quarrel between Philip the Fair and Pope Benedict XI.

Though freed from the violence of Pope Boniface VIII., King Philip the Fair pursued the dead pontiff's memory with unrelenting hostility. He demanded that the new Pope, Benedict XI., should call a council to condemn Boniface VIII. for heresy and other crimes. Benedict XI. refused to pursue his predecessor's memory, and pronounced a sentence of excommunication against the individuals concerned in the arrest of Boniface VIII. and against all others who might have aided or encouraged their proceedings in any manner, among whom it was very clear that he included the King of France himself. Pope Benedict XI. died very suddenly a month afterward, and it was very generally believed that his death was hastened by poison administered by the French king's agents.

Benedict's Sudden Death.

Philip the Fair now resolved that the next Pope should be a Frenchman, and one who would consent to be his dependent and instrument. By bribing the cardinals he obtained their promises to elect to the Papacy the person whom he nominated. He then summoned the unscrupulous Bertrand de Goth, Archbishop of Bordeaux, to his presence, and offered to make him Pope if he would swear to comply with six conditions, five of which were named to him then and there. These conditions were: To remove all the ecclesiastical censures pronounced against Philip the Fair and his supporters; to grant him a tenth of the revenues of the Church in France for five years; to condemn the memory of Boniface VIII.; to restore the Colonna family to their honors; and to confirm several persons nominated by Philip the Fair as cardinals. The French king reserved the sixth and last condition to be named thereafter, but the archbishop solemnly swore to grant it when it should be demanded of him.

Philip the Fair Secures the Election of a French Pope.

His Bargain with the New Pope.

When the disgraceful bargain had been concluded, the King of France caused the archbishop to be elected Pope, and the new pontiff assumed the title of Clement V., June, A. D. 1305. He was crowned at Lyons, and established his residence at Avignon, on the Rhone, instead of at Rome, as we have before noticed. By this change Pope Clement V. placed himself entirely in the power of Philip the Fair, whom he soon found a most relentless master. The new Pope promptly fulfilled the five conditions which the King of France had named to him, and awaited the announcement of the sixth condition with considerable anxiety. For the next seventy-two years (A. D. 1305–1377) the Popes continued to reside at Avignon; and, being thus within the French kingdom, they were wholly under French influence.

The New Pope, Clement V.

The Papal Residence at Avignon.

Since their expulsion from Palestine the Knights Templars had continued to exist as one of the wealthiest and most powerful institutions in Europe; comprising a body of fifteen thousand veteran knights, exempt from the royal jurisdiction and governed by their own peculiar laws and officers, and being established in every country of Europe. Their immense wealth, their pride and avarice, and their insolent treatment of the people made them unpopular wherever they were established. By their resistance to some of the tyrannical measures of Philip the Fair they had aroused that monarch's hostility, and he determined to destroy them as an order. He was made the more eager to proceed against them by the prospect of confiscating all their great wealth in France.

Philip the Fair's Hostility to the Knights Templars.

For the purpose of accomplishing the destruction of this order, which was largely ecclesiastical and under the Pope's immediate protection, it was essential to obtain the assistance of the Church. Accordingly,

His Proposed Destruction of the Templars.

when Clement V. was fairly established in the Papacy, Philip the Fair named to him the sixth condition which the Pope had sworn to grant, and which was the destruction of the Knights Templars. At first the Pope shrank with horror from such a proceeding, but he was utterly helpless in the French king's hands, and was obliged to do his master's bidding.

The Templars' Officers Enticed to France and Imprisoned.

Jacques du Molay, the Grand Master of the Knights Templars, and the other chief officers of the order, were invited into France on the pretext of taking measures with the Pope for a new crusade. Philip the Fair at first received them with distinction, but they were soon seized and imprisoned, October 13, A. D. 1307. The property of the order throughout France was seized by the officers of the crown, and all the Knights Templars in the kingdom were arrested and cast into prison. Philip the Fair accused them of idolatry, atheism, Mohammedanism and many infamous practices. They were doubtless innocent of the charges which the French king brought against them, whatever their faults were.

Condemnation and Burning of the Templars.

Many of the unfortunate Knights Templars were forced by torture to confess the crimes of which they were accused and of which they were innocent, and the confessions thus obtained were used to fix the guilt of the order. Others endured their sufferings with heroic fortitude and protested their innocence to the very last. Nevertheless, with the evidence which he had obtained, Philip the Fair procured the condemnation of the order by the States-General in May, 1308, and forced Pope Clement V. to consent to the sacrifice of the Knights Templars. Many of them were burned to death, dying with the unflinching bravery which had made their order invincible in battle. In the Council of Vienne, in March, 1312, Pope Clement V. solemnly abolished the order of Knights Templars throughout Europe, and bestowed their landed estates and all their privileges on the Knights of St. John.

Burning of the Grand Master.

Two-thirds of the movable property of the Knights Templars were conferred on the King of France as compensation for his expenses in the prosecution, and this amounted to a large sum. The last victims of the French king's tyranny and caprice were Jacques du Molay, the Grand Master of the unfortunate order, and the Preceptor of Normandy, who were kept in prison for seven years and finally burned at the stake, in Paris, in March, 1314, protesting their innocence to the very last, and dying with a courage and fortitude which caused the spectators to shed tears.

Deaths of Pope Clement V. and King Philip the Fair

Pope Clement V. died a few weeks afterward, April 20, 1314; and King Philip the Fair himself passed to his grave November 29th of the same year. Philip the Fair was one of the most unscrupulous of the French kings, and was also one of the most successful. He succeeded

in everything that he undertook. He humbled the Church by his treatment of Popes Boniface VIII. and Clement V. By crushing the Knights Templars he struck the severest blow that had yet been inflicted upon the feudal nobility. He restored the supremacy of the civil law in France, and protected the common people against the aggressions of the nobles, though he himself did not respect the rights of the masses. He may be deservedly ranked among the greatest of French kings, on account of his great abilities and the success of his measures. But, with all his talents, he was so unscrupulous, rapacious, vindictive and cruel that he won no lasting good for his kingdom, and left a character noted for its dishonesty.

Philip's Character.

Philip the Fair's three sons reigned in succession. The eldest of these, Louis X., became King of France upon his father's death in 1314. Louis X. was surnamed *le Hutin*, "disorder," or "tumult," from the tumultuous conduct of the French nobles. He reigned but two years, during which a violent reaction set in from all classes—the nobles, the clergy and the commons—against the despotism established by Philip the Fair. Each class recovered a part of its lost rights, and the nobles contrived to exalt their own power at the expense of the commons. Louis X. died in June, 1316, without an heir. About four months afterward his queen, Jeanne of Navarre, gave birth to a son, who died six days later, and is not generally classed among the Kings of France.

Louis X., le Hutin, A. D. 1314–1316.

Reaction.

Death of Louis X. and His Queen.

Philip, the brother of Louis X., had been appointed regent when that king died; and upon his infant nephew's death he caused himself to be crowned King of France at Rheims, January 9, A. D. 1317. Thus began the reign of Philip the Long, which lasted six years. The Duke of Burgundy claimed the French crown for his niece, the Princess Jeanne, the daughter of Louis X. by his first wife; but Philip the Long convened the States-General, which enacted a law declaring females incapable of inheriting the French crown. This measure is called the *Salic Law*, because it was based upon an obscure article in the barbarous code of the Salian Franks, which prohibited the transmission of the allodial property of the tribe to women. This measure silenced all opposition to Philip the Long and confirmed him in his usurpation. The Salic Law has ever since remained an essential part of French constitutional law. In after ages it proved of the greatest benefit to France by excluding foreign princes from the throne, and keeping the sovereignty in the possession of a dynasty of native French kings.

Philip the Long, A. D. 1316–1321.

The Salic Law.

Philip the Long was a mild and generous sovereign, and was the author of many useful laws, one of which declared the royal domain inalienable. He died in 1322, without a son; whereupon his brother, Charles the Fair, the third and youngest son of Philip the

Charles the Fair, A. D. 1321–1328.

Fair, became King of France. Taking advantage of the civil war between King Edward II. of England and his barons, Charles the Fair endeavored to seize the duchy of Guienne, or Aquitaine, and captured La Rochelle. The English king sent his wife Isabella, the sister of the French monarch, to Paris, in May, 1325, to negotiate a peace; but Isabella had no sooner arrived in France than she began plotting against her husband, and her brother aided her with men and money. She returned to England in September, 1326, and brought on the rebellion which ended in the dethronement and murder of her husband. Charles the Fair restored Guienne to Edward III., the next King of England, upon the payment of an indemnity of fifty thousand marks sterling. Charles the Fair died January 31, 1328, without a male heir. Two months afterward his queen gave birth to a princess.

His Sister Isabella, Wife of Edward II. of England.

Guienne Restored to Edward III. of England.

SECTION II.—VALOIS DYNASTY AND HUNDRED YEARS' WAR WITH ENGLAND (A. D. 1328–1461).

End of the Direct Line of Capet.

The direct line of the House of Capet, which had occupied the throne of France in continuous succession for more than three centuries, was ended by the death of Charles the Fair in 1328. The popular belief was that this failure of heirs was a Divine punishment for the crimes of Philip the Fair. Upon the birth of the posthumous daughter of Charles the Fair, the French nobles conferred the crown upon Count Philip of Valois, grandson of Philip the Bold and nephew of Philip the Fair. The new king was the first cousin and the nearest male relative of Charles the Fair, and was regarded as having a lawful right to the French crown under the Salic Law. He was crowned at Rheims, May 29, 1328, and is called Philip VI. With him began the Valois branch of the House of Capet, which occupied the French throne for more than two and a-half centuries (A. D. 1328–1589).

Philip of Valois, or Philip VI., A. D. 1328–1350.

His Character, Court and Power.

The new monarch was thirty-five years of age at his accession, and was endowed with many good qualities. He was brave, generous and affable, and was fond of pomp and display. He established a magnificent court, which became the habitual residence of the great French nobles and of the blind King John of Bohemia and the Kings of Navarre and Majorca, with their splendid retinues. In the midst of this magnificence, King Philip VI. was silently increasing the royal power in France until the sovereign became as strong and despotic as during the reign of Philip the Fair.

The Count of Evreux, as King of Navarre.

Philip VI. commenced his reign by establishing the Count and Countess of Evreux on the throne of Navarre. The countess was the daughter of King Louis X., and was only prevented by the Salic Law from

inheriting the French crown upon her father's death. In return for the services of Philip VI. in placing them on the throne of Navarre, both she and her husband renounced their pretensions to the French crown.

Flemish Revolt Subdued.

At this time the Flemings revolted against their ruler, the Count of Flanders, and that prince solicited assistance from King Philip VI. The French monarch promptly marched to the aid of the Count of Flanders, defeated the Flemings in the battle of Cassel, and reëstablished their count's authority.

Edward III. of England Does Homage for Guienne.

The French king now considered himself strong enough to summon King Edward III. of England to appear at his court and do feudal homage for his duchy of Guienne. The English king, being unprepared for war, considered it more prudent to obey, and accordingly did homage to Philip VI. at Amiens in 1329. But Edward III. made a secret reservation, in his council of state, not to surrender his rights as an independent sovereign, and to vindicate those rights at the proper time.

Crimes and Exile of Count Robert of Artois.

The King of England waited six years; during which the French monarch made an enemy of his brother-in-law, Count Robert of Artois, who had been one of his most devoted and useful friends. Count Robert had sought by a base imposture, and, as it was believed, by causing two of his relatives to be poisoned, to recover the county of Artois, which had been taken from him in a former reign. His fraud was detected, and he was sentenced to perpetual banishment, while his property was confiscated. He had fled from the kingdom before this sentence was pronounced, and immediately began plotting against the King of France, whom he hated for not shielding him from the consequences of his crimes. Fearing the exiled count's enmity, King Philip VI. pursued Robert from country to country, causing the various princes to refuse him the refuge which he sought. At length Robert fled to England, where he was heartily welcomed by King Edward III., the jealous and vigilant rival of the French king, A. D. 1333.

Philip VI., Robert of Artois and Edward III. of England.

The ceaseless plotting of the exiled Count of Artois at the English court caused King Philip VI. to bring matters to a crisis. Early in A. D. 1336 he proclaimed Robert of Artois a traitor and an enemy of France, and forbade all his vassals of whatever rank, in or out of France, to receive or aid him on penalty of confiscation of their fiefs. The King of England accepted the insult as addressed to himself, regarded it as a declaration of war on the French king's part, and therefore commenced making energetic preparations for war.

Edward III. Claims the French Crown.

The Flemings, under their celebrated leader, James Van Artevelde, the noted brewer of Ghent, now espoused the English monarch's cause; and, by Van Artevelde's advice, King Edward III. formally assumed

Acknowledged by Flemings.

the title of King of France in 1337, claiming the French crown because his mother was a daughter of Philip the Fair—a claim of course made invalid by the Salic Law. The Flemings instantly acknowledged the English king as their feudal lord, and in 1339 he crossed over to Flanders, from which he invaded France. The first campaign was indecisive, and the English retired into Hainault.

Naval Battle of Helvoetsluys.

In the spring of 1340 King Edward III. returned to Flanders with a formidable fleet and a considerable army. In the meantime a French army had been sent into Hainault; and the French fleet, which consisted of four hundred well-manned and equipped ships, was sent into the Flemish waters to prevent the English king from landing. The French forces posted themselves near the mouth of the Scheldt at Helvoetsluys. The English fleet approached in the afternoon of June 23, 1340, and attacked the French fleet the next morning. The battle continued until late in the afternoon, and the French were overwhelmingly defeated with the loss of thirty thousand men and the capture of almost their whole fleet. The French navy was annihilated, and England's maritime supremacy was fully established. The English loss was slight in comparison with the French. King Edward III. himself was slightly wounded.

English Invasion of France.

Several weeks afterwards the King of England invaded France with a large army, in which were sixty thousand Flemings under James Van Artevelde, and besieged Tournay, but he obtained no advantage. A

Truce.

truce was concluded, which both parties observed beyond the period named, until the middle of the summer of 1342; but a permanent peace was prevented by a new source of trouble which reopened the quarrel between the two kingdoms.

Disputed Succession in Brittany.

Count Charles of Blois and Count John de Montfort disputed the succession to the duchy of Brittany. The King of France sustained the claims of Charles of Blois, his nephew; while the King of England

Charles of Blois and John de Montfort.

espoused the cause of John de Montfort, whom he created Earl of Richmond. In August, 1341, Charles captured the town of Nantes, which was held by John de Montfort, took his rival prisoner, and sent him to Paris. The Countess de Montfort now took up her husband's cause and defended it very ably and gallantly. She threw herself into the town of Hennebon, which she occupied, until the arrival of a large reinforcement, sent to her aid by King Edward III., forced the French to raise the siege, A. D. 1342.

Another Truce.

King Edward III. himself came over, but nothing definite was accomplished, and a truce of three years was signed between the English and French kings, which included the allies and partisans on both sides, January 19, 1343. Neither party intended to observe the treaty, but Philip VI. first violated it. Before the end of the year he invited fif-

teen of the most powerful barons of Brittany to a tournament at Paris, and then treacherously arrested them on an unsustained charge of intriguing with the English. They were beheaded without trial by order of the French king, November 29, 1343; and early in 1344 three Norman barons were seized and executed in the same manner.

Barons of Brittany and Normandy Treacherously Arrested and Beheaded by Philip VI.

The royal murder of these nobles aroused a feeling of universal indignation against King Philip VI. Edward III. proclaimed that the King of France had violated the treaty, declared war against him in 1345, and invaded France in 1346 with thirty thousand infantry. He landed at Cape La Hogue, in Normandy, June 12, 1346, and marched almost to Paris, ravaging the country with fire and sword; after which he retreated into Flanders, pursued by Philip VI. with an army of one hundred thousand Frenchmen.

Invasion of France by Edward III. of England.

The King of France sought to force the English monarch to an engagement, in which he hoped that his great superiority of numbers would give him the victory. Edward III. skillfully eluded his antagonist until he had crossed the Somme and secured his retreat into Flanders; after which he took position on the edge of the forest of Creçy, about twelve miles from Abbeville, where he awaited the French king's approach. Having failed to prevent the English from passing the Somme, Philip VI. crossed that stream at Abbeville, and marched hastily toward the English king's position, before which he arrived August 26, 1346.

The English and French Armies at Crecy.

The French king intended to postpone the attack until the next day, but his advanced troops engaged without his orders, thus bringing on the great battle of Creçy, in which the French were decisively defeated with the loss of twelve hundred knights, eighty bannerets, thirty thousand men-at-arms, and many princes, counts and superior officers. The Counts of Alençon and Flanders, and the veteran knight-errant, the almost-blind old King John of Bohemia, were among the slain. The victorious English gave no quarter; and King Philip VI., who had fought with valor in the disastrous battle, fled from the sanguinary field and took refuge at Amiens. The English victory was owing to the bravery of King Edward's heroic son Edward, the Prince of Wales, called the *Black Prince*, from the color of his armor, who commanded the first division of his father's army; and also to the steadiness and skill of the English archers, before whose destructive showers of arrows the undisciplined French hosts were unable to stand.

Battle of Crecy.

Edward the Black Prince.

After the battle of Creçy, King Edward III. laid siege to Calais, the gate to France, while his fleet blockaded the town by sea. The inhabitants had made an obstinate defense for nearly a year, when, threatened with all the horrors of famine, they were finally forced to surrender to the victorious invaders, August 4, 1347. It is said that the King

Siege of Calais by Edward III.

of England, exasperated at the stubborn resistance of the citizens of Calais, agreed to spare the inhabitants, if six of the principal citizens were brought to him, with halters about their necks, ready for hanging; whereupon Eustace St. Pierre, a wealthy merchant of Calais, offered himself as the first victim, and five other leading citizens followed his noble example. When the six leading citizens appeared before Edward III., the stern monarch ordered them to execution; and their lives were only spared through the earnest entreaties of the English nobles, of King Edward's heroic son, the Black Prince, and of his noble-hearted queen, Philippa, who fell on her knees before her husband and exhorted him not to violate the laws of religion and honor by so inhuman an act. King Edward III. expelled the French inhabitants of Calais and peopled the city with English; and for two centuries that important town remained in the possession of the English.

Eustace St. Pierre and Five Other Citizens of Calais.

Truce.

A truce of ten months was concluded between the two kings, September 28, 1347, and Edward III. returned to England. At the end of the truce hostilities were not resumed. During the years 1348 and 1349 the Black Plague raged throughout France, carrying off hundreds of thousands; and in Paris alone fifty thousand persons fell victims to its ravages, among whom were the Queens of France and Navarre.

The Black Plague.

The Gabelle.

Philip VI. imposed a tax on salt, called the *Gabelle*, thus originating the government monopoly of salt, which afterwards became so profitable to the French treasury and so obnoxious to the French people. In 1350 Humbert II., the Dauphin of Vienne, so called from the *Dolphin*, or *Dauphin*, which he carried as his emblem, retired into a monastery. As he was childless he ceded his hereditary estates to Philip VI. for the king's grandson, Prince Charles, afterwards King Charles the Wise, for two hundred thousand florins to be paid him by Philip VI. Thus the province of Dauphiny, or Dauphine, became a possession of the French crown, and the French king's eldest son was thereafter called the Dauphin, just as the British monarch's eldest son has been styled the Prince of Wales.

Acquisition of Dauphiny.

The First Dauphin.

John the Good, A. D. 1350–1364.

Philip VI. died August 22, 1350, after a reign of twenty-two years, and was succeeded as King of France by his son, JOHN THE GOOD, who was then thirty-one years old. John the Good resembled his father in character; being proud, obstinate, presumptuous, cruel, fond of pomp and luxury, display and pleasure. He was likewise brave, and could be generous when he desired to be so. He sincerely wished to be a model knight.

His Character.

At the beginning of his reign King John the Good seized Raoul de Nesle, the Constable of France, and put him to death without trial; after which he conferred the office of Constable on Charles de la Cerda,

John the Good and Charles the Bad of Navarre

to whom he also granted the county of Angoulême, which had been ceded to the French crown by Charles the Bad, then King of Navarre, on condition of obtaining other territories in exchange. John violated his agreement by refusing to give these territories, thus making the King of Navarre his bitter enemy. Charles the Bad brought many afflictions on France during the reign of John the Good. He vowed vengeance against the Constable Charles de la Cerda, and fulfilled his threats by causing the Constable to be assassinated in his bed in January, 1354.

John the Good's Invasion of Navarre and Evreux.

King John the Good instantly prepared to invade Charles the Bad's Kingdom of Navarre and his county of Evreux; but, as the King of Navarre was a most formidable foe, the French monarch agreed to a reconciliation, which was arranged by their relatives. The reconciliation was a mere pretense; and the King of Navarre instigated the Dauphin Charles, the son of John the Good, to lead a party in opposition to his father. This proceeding aroused the French king to the utmost fury. Upon hearing of it he hastened to Rouen, where the Dauphin, as Duke of Normandy, held his court, and personally arrested Charles the Bad, whom he would have put to death had not the Dauphin persuaded him against so harsh an action. The King of Navarre was then sent to Paris, and imprisoned in the Chatelet, where he was treated harshly, April, 1356.

Seizure and Imprisonment of Charles the Bad of Navarre.

Charles the Bad's Allies.

The cause of the King of Navarre was championed by his brother Philip in the summer of 1356; and with many discontented French nobles, Philip joined the English Duke of Lancaster and made war on the French king in Normandy. John the Good marched against his enemies and drove them back, after which he besieged the fortress of Breteuil, which belonged to the King of Navarre.

The English Black Prince's Invasion of France.

While engaged in the siege of Breteuil, King John the Good was informed that the English Black Prince with eight thousand troops had marched out of his duchy of Guienne and had advanced into the French monarch's territories as far as Bourges. The King of France instantly raised the siege of Breteuil, and hastened by forced marches into Poitou in order to cut off the Black Prince's communications and intercept his retreat into Guienne. John the Good threw his army of sixty thousand Frenchmen across the route of the Black Prince. The Black Prince hereupon offered to surrender the conquered territory and give up the war, if he were permitted to retreat unmolested; but this was prevented by the obstinacy of the French monarch, who insisted on terms of unconditional submission.

Battle of Poitiers.

Seeing that he must either fight or surrender, Edward the Black Prince took up a strong position at Poitiers, where he awaited the French attack, undismayed by the vast numerical superiority of the

army of King John the Good. On the morning of September 19, 1356, the French king made a gallant attack upon the English army, but was defeated most disastrously. The French were thrown into confusion by the deadly volleys of arrows from the English archers, and broke and fled before the decisive charge of the Black Prince's troops. Only one French division, that commanded by King John the Good in person, endeavored to check the English advance; but this division was beaten, and John himself was taken prisoner. The French lost twenty-five hundred nobles and knights, and from seven thousand to eight thousand common soldiers. The prisoners taken by the victorious English numbered more than three times the entire English force.

John the Good's Captivity in England.

Edward the Black Prince treated the captive French king with the utmost respect and magnanimity, and generously sought to make him forget his captivity. John was taken to Bordeaux, and in the spring of 1357 he was conveyed a captive to London by the victorious Black Prince, who continued to treat the unfortunate French monarch with the utmost generosity; and during the four years of his captivity in the English capital John was treated by King Edward III. more like a guest than a prisoner, and was assigned the old palace of the Savoy for his residence. Unsuccessful efforts were made for the restoration of peace, but a truce was concluded between the warring nations for two years from Easter, 1357.

Truce.

Regency of the Dauphin.

The Dauphin Charles, who made his escape from the battle of Poitiers, arrived at Paris ten days afterward, and assumed the government of the French kingdom as lieutenant-general. The king's capture had thrown all France into confusion, and the Dauphin summoned the States-General at once. It was manifest that the commons intended to profit by the opportunity to recover some of their lost rights. They were led by Etienne Marcel, the Mayor of Paris, and by Robert Lecoq, Bishop of Laon, both very able and patriotic men.

Marcel and the Commons.

Successful Popular Insurrection in Paris.

The Dauphin was obliged to concede the just and moderate demands of the commons, but he also obtained an order from his father to disregard all his promises as well as the acts of the States-General. This led to an insurrection of the Parisian populace, who released Charles the Bad of Navarre and urged him to assert his claim to the French crown, which would have been indisputable had he not been related to the royal family on his mother's side, thus being excluded by the Salic Law. The insurgents murdered two of the Dauphin's most trusted counselors in his presence and forced him to sanction their proceedings.

Reaction in Favor of the Dauphin.

The Dauphin Charles was now a prisoner in the power of Marcel, who permitted him to retire from Paris to Compiègne, where the nobility speedily joined him. The States-General convened and sustained the Dauphin, and a powerful reaction set in in favor of the royal cause.

His Triumph.

A civil war of five months ended in the Dauphin's triumph and the defeat of the cause of popular liberty.

Insurrection of the Jacquerie.

At this time a sanguinary insurrection of the French peasantry burst forth, in consequence of the miserable condition of serfdom in which the peasants had so long been kept by the despotic nobility. This great popular revolt is known as the *Insurrection of the Jacquerie*, from Jacques Bonhomme, the name given in derision to a French peasant. The insurgent peasants sacked the feudal castles, and put to death their inmates, without respect to age or sex. After the peasants had been repulsed in an attack upon one of the towns, they were hunted down like wild beasts, and thousands of them were brutally massacred. Many of the rural districts were almost depopulated, and presented a sad picture of ruin and desolation.

Peace with Navarre and England.

Charles the Bad of Navarre continued his war against the French kingdom for some time longer, and the Dauphin signed a treaty of peace favorable to the Navarrese king in August, 1359, for the purpose of obtaining peace. It became known at the same time that the captive King John the Good had concluded a treaty of peace with King Edward III. of England, ceding to that monarch the duchies of Aquitaine and Normandy, the viscounty of Limousin, and the counties of Poitou, Touraine and Saintonge—in all about one-half of the Kingdom of France—in absolute sovereignty.

Half of France Ceded to Edward III.

Rejection of the Treaty.

This humiliating treaty aroused the indignation of the Dauphin, who summoned the States-General; and that body repudiated the treaty, with a patriotic declaration that the French people were willing to endure any hardships rather than agree to such a disgraceful dismemberment of the kingdom.

Another Invasion of France by Edward III.

King Edward III. was so enraged at the rejection of the treaty by the States-General that he invaded France in October, 1359, and forced the Dauphin to consent to a treaty called the Peace of Bretigny, in May, 1360. The terms of this treaty were as humiliating to France as those of the one that had been rejected; as the duchy of Aquitaine, the viscounty of Limousin, and the counties of Poitou, Saintonge and Angoumois were ceded to the King of England in full sovereignty, or independently of all homage to the French crown. Edward III., however, renounced for himself and his son, the Prince of Wales, all claims to the crown of France and all pretensions to the duchy of Normandy and the other ancient possessions of the Plantagenets north of the Loire. King John the Good was to be set free on the payment of a ransom of three million crowns, in six annual installments. The captive king was to be released when the first half million crowns were paid, and was to place some of the chief lords of France in the English king's power as hostages for the payment of the other installments.

Peace of Bretigny.

Its Humiliating Terms.

John the Good's Release. The Dauphin raised the requisite sum with extreme difficulty, and John the Good was restored to his freedom. He was joyfully received by his subjects, as peace at any price seemed sweet to them because of the exhausted condition of the kingdom.

Burgundy Annexed to the Royal Domain. The last of the ancient house of the Dukes of Burgundy died in 1361; and, as there were no direct heirs, King John the Good claimed the duchy as the nearest male relative of the last duke, disregarding the claim of King Charles the Bad of Navarre, which was at least as good as his own, and seized the duchy of Burgundy and annexed it to the royal domain.

Escape of One of the French Hostages. Count Louis of Anjou, the French king's second son, was one of the hostages delivered to Edward III. of England for the fulfillment of the Treaty of Bretigny; but the young prince broke his parole, made his escape from Calais, and hastened to Paris. John the Good was a faithful knight, and was intensely mortified by his son's breach of faith. He therefore resolved to atone for the bad faith of Louis by voluntarily returning to England without delay and surrendering himself as a prisoner again.

Duke Philip the Bold of Burgundy. Before leaving France for England, John the Good granted the duchy of Burgundy to his youngest and favorite son Philip in fief, as a reward for that prince's heroism in the battle of Poitiers, where he fought bravely at his father's side. This grant was a fatherly proceeding on the king's part, but it was also an act of short-sighted and mistaken policy. Philip the Bold, the new Duke of Burgundy, thus founded the later ducal house of Burgundy, which became a powerful rival to the royal family of France in the next century.

John the Good's Return to Captivity and His Death. King John the Good returned to England in January, 1364, to voluntarily resume his captivity. King Edward III. received him with courtesy and distinction. Soon after his arrival in London, John fell a victim to a fatal illness, which ended his life April 8, 1364, at the age of forty-five.

Charles the Wise, A. D. 1364–1380. John the Good was succeeded on the throne of France by his son CHARLES V., surnamed *le Sage*, "the Wise." Unlike his father, Charles the Wise was quiet and studious in his habits, was a well-educated man for the age in which he lived, and was cautious and prudent by nature. His physical weakness prevented him from engaging in a soldier's rough life; but he had the happy faculty of promptly recognizing and readily employing the men best adapted to execute his plans—a faculty so essential in the sovereign of a great and powerful kingdom. This quality caused him to select Bertrand du Guesclin as the chief commander of his armies, and to firmly sustain that great general, who had given evidence of his remarkable military genius at the beginning of this reign.

His Good Character

Bertrand du Guesclin.

Dauphiny and the Dauphin.

When Charles the Wise became King of France he annexed the province of Dauphiny to the French crown, and, in accordance with the arrangements made just before the death of Philip VI. in 1350, thereafter the French king's eldest son and heir was called the *Dauphin*, as the eldest son of the British monarch has been styled the *Prince of Wales*.

Civil War in Castile.

Pedro the Cruel and Henry of Trastamara.

When Charles the Wise ascended the throne of France a civil war was raging in the Kingdom of Castile in Spain, between King Pedro the Cruel and his illegitimate brother, Henry of Trastamara. Henry was driven into France, where he implored the aid of the French king; and in 1365 Charles the Wise sent an army under Du Guesclin into Spain, whereupon the Castilians instantly rose in revolt against Pedro the Cruel, who was obliged to flee from Castile, and Henry of Trastamara obtained the Castilian throne without striking a blow.

The English Black Prince and Du Guesclin.

Battle of Navarette.

Pedro the Cruel sought refuge at the court of Edward the Black Prince at Bordeaux, whom he induced to march into Spain with ten thousand troops to restore him to the throne of Castile. Pedro's army, commanded by the Black Prince, defeated Henry's force, under the command of Du Guesclin, in the battle of Navarette, April 3, 1367. Du Guesclin's force was routed with terrible slaughter, Du Guesclin himself being taken prisoner; but Henry escaped, and found refuge with Pope Urban V. at Avignon.

The Black Prince's Free Companies.

Their Excesses.

This Castilian war produced very important results for France. Pedro the Cruel failed to furnish the funds to pay the Black Prince's troops, who were mercenary soldiers called the *Free Companies;* and the Black Prince himself was unable to raise the money for this purpose when he returned to Bordeaux. The army dispersed in many bands, discontented and angry, and commenced perpetrating such outrages in the Black Prince's dominions that he was obliged to demand their retirement. They then entered France, and committed such excesses that the inhabitants of the suffering districts were aroused to fury against the Black Prince.

The Black Prince and His French Provinces.

For the purpose of raising funds to pay these mercenary troops, the Black Prince imposed a heavy tax upon his subjects. The nobles remonstrated, and refused to pay the tax. In 1368 three of the most powerful of these nobles appealed to the King of France, as lord-paramount, to protect them against the exactions of the Black Prince. Charles the Wise had secretly encouraged this disaffection, and had chosen his time very well. The Black Prince was slowly dying of an incurable disease, and Edward III. was aged and feeble. The French people felt deeply humiliated by the sacrifices made by the Treaty of Bretigny, and the French provinces ceded to England desired a reunion with the Kingdom of France.

Du Guesclin's Invasion of Castile.

Charles the Wise first secured the services of the Free Companies, and sent them into Spain under Du Guesclin to restore Henry of Trastamara to the throne of Castile, in which he succeeded. Pedro the Cruel was defeated and taken prisoner, and slain soon afterward; whereupon Henry of Trastamara, with whom the French king had concluded an offensive and defensive alliance, was acknowledged King of Castile. The King of France now threw off the mask by repudiating the Treaty of Bretigny and summoning the Black Prince to appear before him to answer the complaints of his vassals.

Overthrow and Death of Pedro the Cruel.

The Black Prince Summoned.

War broke out at the same time in the North and South of France. The cautious policy of Charles the Wise succeeded, and the French obtained a great advantage through the failing health of the Black Prince, who became so ill that he was obliged to relinquish his command and to return to England in 1370. By the end of the year 1372 Du Guesclin, who had been made Constable of France, had recovered the entire region between the Gironde and the Loire. Brittany was overrun in 1373, and most of the fortresses in that duchy came into the French king's possession.

French Successes.

Du Guesclin, Constable.

Another English Invasion of France.

King Edward III. now sent a large army into France under John of Gaunt, Duke of Lancaster, who landed in that country in July, 1373. Charles the Wise adopted the Fabian policy, and his generals steadily retired before the English commander, refusing to engage in a decisive conflict. Said the French king to his commanders: "Let the storm rage; retire before it; it will soon exhaust itself."

French Fabian Policy.

Sufferings and Losses of the English Invaders.

The wisdom of the French monarch's policy was vindicated by the result. When the Duke of Lancaster arrived at Bordeaux he had lost about a third of his army by sickness, fatigue, capture or death, in the many petty attacks with which he was harassed by the French on his march; and twenty-four thousand out of his thirty thousand horses had died. The work of destruction was completed by the privations and sufferings of the winter, so that the English army was ruined without having an opportunity to fight one battle. The towns and castles of Gascony quickly deserted to the French side; and by the end of 1374 the only important places which the English held in France were Calais, Bordeaux and Bayonne. Pope Gregory XI.—who restored the papal residence to Rome in 1377—arranged a truce between France and England in June, 1375. The Black Prince died in 1376; and his father, King Edward III., passed to his grave in 1377; so that France was thus relieved of her two most inveterate foes.

English Losses in France.

Truce.

French and Castilian Descent on England.

Immediately after the death of King Edward III. the united fleets of France and Castile made a descent upon the coast of England, and ravaged the shores of the Isle of Wight and the neighboring counties. The English possessions in the duchy of Guienne and the duchy of

French Conquests from the English.

Brittany were wholly conquered and annexed to the French crown; while the King of Navarre, who was detected in another effort against the King of France, was obliged to purchase peace by surrendering several of the strongest castles in his kingdom.

Annexation and Revolt of Brittany.

The annexation of Brittany to the crown of France, in 1379, greatly offended the Bretons, who were unwilling to surrender their independence. They promptly revolted against King Charles the Wise and recalled their exiled duke, who landed at St. Malo in August, 1379, and was welcomed with enthusiasm. All the Breton generals in the French service resigned their commands and joined their countrymen. Even the noble-hearted Du Guesclin, who was devotedly attached to King Charles the Wise, resigned his office and retired from court. The king implored the Constable to resume his post, and Du Guesclin consented, but firmly declined to fight his own countrymen. Charles the Wise obstinately persisted in his designs against Brittany, thus hopelessly alienating the Bretons from the French crown.

Du Guesclin's Resignation and Return.

Revolt in Languedoc.

The misgovernment of the Duke of Anjou now produced troubles in Languedoc. The English took advantage of the circumstance to seize several towns and castles along the frontier of Languedoc, and the French king sent Du Guesclin to drive out the invaders. Du Guesclin fell a victim to illness, dying while engaged in the siege of Châteauneuf de Randau; and the governor of that fortress, who had sworn not to surrender to any but Du Guesclin himself, brought the keys of the fortress to the Constable's tent and quietly laid them on the dead hero's breast. All France mourned for Du Guesclin. King Charles the Wise deeply lamented his death, and caused his remains to be conveyed to Paris and buried with almost royal honors in the Abbey of St. Denis, among the Kings of France.

Constable du Guesclin's Death.

National Grief Therefor.

Death and Character of Charles the Wise.

Charles the Wise died two months after his general, September 16, 1380. He was one of the best of French kings. Though he ruled despotically, he sincerely desired and constantly sought the welfare of his subjects; and his success in recovering the provinces held by the English in France was alone sufficient to rank him as one of the most renowned Kings of France. His kingdom was indebted to him for many wise and useful laws. As he was himself a learned man, he liberally patronized learning. He founded the Royal Library of Paris, and liberally encouraged the arts, particularly architecture. He built the vast and celebrated Hotel de St. Pol, at Paris, which became his favorite residence. He also began the famous fortress of the Bastile.

Royal Library of Paris.

The Bastile.

Jean Froissart, the Historian.

During this period flourished the eminent French historian Jean Froissart, who was born in 1337. He was patronized by Philippa of Hainault, the queen of Edward III. of England, who always welcomed the gay poet and narrator of chivalric deeds. In 1366 Froissart ac-

His Residences in England.

His Writings.

companied Edward the Black Prince to Bordeaux. On the death of his protectress, Froissart renounced his connection with England; and, after different adventures as a diplomat and a soldier, he became domestic chaplain to the Duke of Brabant, who was a poet like Froissart, and of whose verses, with some of his own, he formed a kind of romance called *Meliador*. He again visited England in 1395, and was introduced to King Richard II., but when that monarch was dethroned he returned to Flanders, where he died in 1401. Froissart's historical writings strikingly illustrate the character and manners of his age, and are greatly prized for their graphic simplicity and minute details. They comprise a period of almost eighty years, ending in A. D. 1400.

Charles VI., the Well Beloved, A. D. 1380–1422.

Regency and Guardianship.

Oliver de Clisson, Constable.

Charles the Wise was succeeded on the French throne by his son, CHARLES VI., surnamed *the Well Beloved*, who was not yet twelve years of age. The boy king's four uncles instantly commenced quarreling about the regency, and at length agreed to a compromise. The Duke of Anjou was proclaimed regent during the young king's minority; the custody of the king's person was assigned to the Dukes of Burgundy and Bourbon; and the Duke of Berry was made governor of Languedoc and Aquitaine. In accordance with the command of Charles the Wise on his death-bed, Oliver de Clisson, the trusted lieutenant of Du Guesclin, was made Constable of France.

Insurrections and Commotions.

Death of the Duke of Anjou.

Regency of Duke Philip the Bold of Burgundy.

The Duke of Anjou was a man of notorious avarice; and the unjust and oppressive taxes which he imposed upon the French people occasioned a formidable popular insurrection in Paris and violent commotions throughout the French kingdom, and order was restored with great difficulty. After quiet was restored, the young king returned to Paris, accompanied by his uncles, May, 1382. Immediately afterwards the Duke of Anjou, who had been adopted by his cousin Joanna, Queen of Naples, as her heir, started for that kingdom, where he died in 1384. The regency in France then devolved on Philip the Bold, Duke of Burgundy, the ablest of the young king's uncles.

Flemish Revolt.

Battle of Rosbecque.

The Flemings having revolted against their ruler, Count Louis of Flanders, a French army was sent to subdue them. In the battle of Rosbecque, in which the King of France himself was present, the Flemish leader, Philip Van Artevelde, and twenty-five thousand of his followers, were defeated and slain by the French commanded by Oliver de Clisson, the Constable of France, November, 1382.

Submission of Revolted Towns.

Execution of Rebels.

The great victory at Rosbecque strengthened the royal power in France. All the French towns which had resisted the tyrannical exactions of the monarch were obliged to yield, and all their citizens who had taken a conspicuous part in the popular movement were mercilessly put to death, three thousand being led to the scaffold in Paris alone (A. D. 1382).

All the unpopular taxes were reimposed, and the king levied a fine of nine hundred and sixty thousand francs upon the citizens of Paris, after which he graciously pardoned them for their share in the disturbances. Among the other cities of Northern France which were punished in the same manner as Paris were Rheims, Troyes, Châlons, Orleans and others. This subversion of the rights and liberties of the French people was the direct cause of the civil wars which distracted France in the latter part of this king's reign.

Punishment of Paris and Other Cities.

Count Louis of Flanders died in January, 1384, leaving no male heir. Duke Philip the Bold of Burgundy, who had married the only daughter of Count Louis, came into possession of his dominions, consisting of the counties of Flanders, Artois, Rethel and Nevers, and other territories in Champagne. The Burgundian duke also soon obtained the duchy of Brabant, thus becoming one of the most powerful sovereigns in Europe. He soon settled the troubles which had for a long time existed between the Counts of Flanders and the people of Ghent, and peaceably extended his authority over the entire province. By marrying his eldest son to the daughter of Duke Albert of Bavaria, Philip the Bold had connected himself with one of the most powerful families of Germany; and in 1385 he brought about the marriage of his nephew, King Charles VI. of France, with Isabella, the daughter of Duke Stephen of Bavaria—a union destined to be the source of great trouble to France.

Acquisitions of Duke Philip the Bold of Burgundy.

Marriage Alliances of His Family.

In 1386 the French collected a formidable army and a large fleet to invade England, but losses by tempests and the quarrels of the French commanders caused the failure of the expedition, and the remnant of the fleet that had escaped the storms was captured or destroyed by the English fleet in the harbor of Sluys. An effort to renew the expedition in 1387 likewise failed, on account of the enmity of the Duke of Brittany toward the Constable Oliver de Clisson, thus saving England from French invasion.

Unsuccessful Attempts to Invade England.

In 1388, when Charles the Well Beloved was twenty-one years old, he was induced by the entreaties of his subjects and the advice of the Cardinal-Bishop of Laon to end the regency by assuming control of the government himself. The young king accordingly relieved his uncles, the Dukes of Burgundy and Berry, of their duties; and these powerful dukes left the court, not daring to resist the king's action. The Cardinal-Bishop of Laon, who had advised the king to dismiss them, was found dead on the day of their departure, with evidences of having been poisoned.

Charles VI. Assumes the Government Himself.

The Constable, Oliver de Clisson, and the King's Ministers.

Charles the Well Beloved had no taste for the duties of royalty, and left the government to his ministers, of whom the most influential was the Constable, Oliver de Clisson. These ministers concluded a three

years' truce with England, and introduced many useful reforms into the government, so that these years were comparatively tranquil.

Attempt to Murder the Constable de Clisson.

The king's uncles now sought to destroy De Clisson, whom they bitterly hated. One night in June, 1392, the Constable was attacked and left for dead in the street by a band of bravos led by a nobleman named De Craon, whom the king's uncles had instigated to the deed. De Craon fled to the Duke of Brittany. Enraged by this attack upon one of the highest officers of state, the young king took an oath to signally avenge it. He demanded the surrender of De Craon, but the Duke of Brittany replied that he knew nothing of De Craon or his offense. Thereupon the king took the field against the Breton duke to punish him for his falsehood and for his complicity in the attempted murder.

The Would-be Assassin's Flight to Brittany.

Insanity and Imbecility of Charles VI.

On his march against the Duke of Brittany, Charles the Well Beloved was seized with a dangerous illness, which produced insanity. He partially recovered his reason soon afterward, but from this time he was never capable of sustained effort or close application; and during the rest of his life he was a hopeless imbecile, with frequent fits of violent mania, and with rare lucid rational intervals. As the king was incapable of administering the government, the Duke of Burgundy was made regent, and one of his first acts was to deprive De Clisson of the office of Constable and to drive him into exile. During one of the king's lucid intervals a definite treaty of peace was concluded with England; and the Princess Isabella, a child six years of age, was married to King Richard II. of England, A. D. 1396.

Regency of Duke Philip the Bold of Burgundy.

De Clisson's Exile.

Peace.

Quarrels of the Dukes of Orleans and Burgundy.

From 1400 to 1407 the Dukes of Orleans and Burgundy quarreled about the regency. Duke Philip the Bold of Burgundy died in April, 1404; but his son and successor, John the Fearless, continued all his father's pretensions, and intensified the quarrel with the Duke of Orleans, whom he caused to be assassinated November 23, 1407, thus making himself the real master of the French kingdom.

Civil War between the Orleans and Burgundian Factions.

In 1410 a league was organized by the murdered duke's sons, the young Duke Charles of Orleans and his brother, with the Dukes of Berry, Bourbon and Brittany, and Count Bernard d' Armagnac and the Constable d' Albret, for the overthrow of Duke John the Fearless of Burgundy. The leader of this league was the Count d' Armagnac, whose daughter was married to the young Duke of Orleans; and thenceforth the partisans of the house of Orleans were known as *Armagnacs*.

Capture of Paris by the Armagnacs.

Bernard d' Armagnac collected a large army in the South and West of France, and ravaged the country as far as the very gates of Paris. In 1411 the Armagnacs obtained possession of Paris, but were driven out by Duke John the Fearless of Burgundy and compelled to retreat to Orleans. The Duke of Burgundy then caused many of the adher-

Their Partisans Massacred in Paris.

ents of the Armagnacs in Paris to be put to death, and the streets of the capital were deluged with the blood of the defeated party.

Outlawry of the Armagnacs.

The Armagnacs were now in a desperate situation, as they were outlawed by the king and pursued with brutal fury by the triumphant Duke of Burgundy. Their only alternative was to solicit the aid of England, and accordingly in 1412 they entered into a treaty with King Henry V. of England, agreeing to aid him to recover the former possessions of the Kings of England in the South of France. The young English king agreed to assist the Armagnacs with a force of four thousand select English troops. The discovery of these negotiations by the imbecile French king led to a civil war in France, which resulted in driving Duke John the Fearless of Burgundy from power, and he was forbidden to come to Paris without the king's permission, thus making the Armagnacs complete masters of the government. As the king was an imbecile, his son, the Dauphin Charles, was the real ruler of the French kingdom. The civil war ended in 1414 and reduced France to a very low condition.

Their Alliance with Henry V. of England.

Civil War and Overthrow of Duke John the Fearless of Burgundy.

French Crown Claimed by Henry V. of England.

Profiting by the weakness of France, King Henry V. of England claimed the French crown, and demanded the French king's daughter Catharine in marriage and the restitution of Normandy and of all the provinces ceded by England to France by the Treaty of Bretigny, threatening war in case of refusal. In consequence of the weak condition of France, the Dauphin did not resent the insult offered by the King of England; but offered him his sister Catharine in marriage, with a large dowry in money, and the duchy of Aquitaine and the viscounty of Limousin. The young English king instantly rejected the Dauphin's offer and invaded France, landing at the mouth of the Seine with an army of thirty thousand men, August 14, 1415, and laying siege to Harfleur, which surrendered to him a month afterward.

His Rejection of the Dauphin's Offer and Invasion of France.

Battle of Agincourt.

As the English army was greatly weakened by disease, King Henry V. determined to defer active operations until the next year, and marched northward toward Calais, where he intended to go into winter quarters. His army had now been reduced to eleven thousand men, and on his march to Calais he was attacked at Agincourt by an army of a hundred thousand Frenchmen under the Constable d' Albret, who endeavored to intercept his retreat, October 25, 1415. After a battle of three hours, the French were as signally defeated by the English at Agincourt as they had been at Creçy and Poitiers, through the heavy volleys of the English archers. Ten thousand Frenchmen were killed, of whom there were eight thousand knights, over a hundred noblemen and seven princes of the blood royal. Among the slain were the Constable d'Albret and the Dukes of Alençon and Brabant. Fourteen thousand were taken prisoners, among whom were the Dukes of

Orleans and Bourbon. After the battle of Agincourt the English king retired to Calais, as the weakened condition of his army prevented him from following up his victory.

The Constable de Armagnac and the Dauphin.

The Count d' Armagnac was now made Constable of France. The Dauphin died in December, 1415, and was succeeded by his brother John, Duke of Touraine, who died a little more than a year afterward, believed to have been poisoned by the Constable. The French king's third son, Charles, a boy of fourteen, now became Dauphin. He was fully devoted to the Armagnacs, among whom he had been educated, and was wholly under the influence of the Constable d' Armagnac, who undertook to remove the queen from power by inducing the Dauphin to punish her for her scandalous life. Her paramour was seized, tortured, and drowned in the Seine; while the queen herself was sent into an honorable but strict captivity in the castle of Tours.

Queen Isabella and Her Paramour.

Isabella and Duke John the Fearless of Burgundy.

Thenceforth Queen Isabella entertained the most furious and vindictive hatred toward her son. Duke John the Fearless of Burgundy had maintained a sullen neutrality throughout the war with the English, and he and Queen Isabella had hitherto been declared enemies. Their hatred of the Armagnacs was now their bond of sympathy and union. Before the queen had been long in confinement she contrived to open negotiations with the Duke of Burgundy, who marched to Tours with a military force and released her.

Civil War Renewed.

Queen Isabella declared herself regent of France, and the civil war was renewed with increased fury. The English took advantage of the distracted state of the kingdom, and captured Caen, Bayeux and some other towns in Normandy. In May, 1418, the Burgundians entered Paris, being admitted by a citizen who had become angry with the Constable d' Armagnac. Thereupon a frightful massacre of the Orleanist faction followed; the Constable, several bishops and many nobles being cruelly put to death. The streets of Paris were a general scene of massacre for three days; a band of Parisian assassins called *Cabochiens*, under the leadership of a butcher named Capeluche, taking up the work of the triumphant Burgundian faction.

English Captures.

Burgundian Capture of Paris and Massacre of Orleanists.

Isabella and the Duke of Burgundy Enter Paris.

One of the Orleanist leaders secured the Dauphin's escape to Melun at the beginning of the massacre. Several weeks afterward the queen-regent and Duke John the Fearless of Burgundy entered Paris and were welcomed with joy. The Cabochiens resumed their bloody work, and were restrained with difficulty by the Duke of Burgundy, who was obliged to hang their leader, Capeluche.

Conquest of Normandy by Henry V. of England.

Early in 1419 King Henry V. of England took Rouen and conquered all of Normandy. Both the Burgundian and Orleanist factions endeavored to open negotiations with the invader; but he haughtily refused to treat with either, and marched to Pontoise, whence he men-

aced Paris. The threatened English conquest of all France now caused the factions which distracted the kingdom with civil war to become reconciled for a short time.

Short Truce in the Civil War.

Tauneguy Duchâtel, the Orleanist, or Armagnac leader who had effected the Dauphin's escape from Paris, resolved to put an end to the life of Duke John the Fearless of Burgundy, knowing that his professions could not be relied upon. Accordingly, while the Burgundian duke was engaged in a conference with the Dauphin on the bridge of Montereau he was attacked and assassinated by Tauneguy Duchâtel and other Armagnac leaders, September 10, 1419.

Assassination of Duke John the Fearless of Burgundy.

The assassination of John the Fearless produced the most serious results. Philip the Good, the murdered duke's son and successor, at once entered into an alliance with the English, sinking all patriotic considerations in his desire to avenge the murder of his father. The queen-regent, who desired to punish her son, the Dauphin, supported the new Duke of Burgundy. The Parisians, who were devotedly attached to the Burgundian duke, also espoused the English cause, thus opposing their own king.

Alliance of Duke Philip the Good of Burgundy, the Queen-Regent and the Parisians with the English.

The queen-regent's party at once opened negotiations with the English; and in April, 1420, the insane King Charles VI., at the dictation of his queen and Duke Philip the Good of Burgundy, signed the Treaty of Troyes—by far the most humiliating treaty ever subscribed by a French sovereign. It was agreed that Henry V. of England should marry the Princess Catharine, the French king's daughter; that he should be declared regent of the French kingdom and heir to the French crown at the death of the imbecile Charles VI.; that the crowns of France and England should thereafter be permanently united under one sovereign; and both the contracting parties bound themselves to enter into no engagement whatever with the French king's son Charles, "calling himself the Dauphin of Vienne," except by the mutual and unanimous consent of all parties to the treaty.

Treaty of Troyes.

Henry V. of England, Regent and Heir to the French Crown.

Thus the demented Charles VI. was forced to betray his country and repudiate his own son. The civil war in France between the Burgundian and Orleanist factions had reduced French courage and patriotism to so low a state that this treaty—the most humiliating transaction in French history—was joyfully received throughout Northern France. After the terms of the treaty had been settled, Henry V. and the Princess Catharine were married with great pomp at Troyes, June 2, 1420.

Weakness of France.

Marriage of Henry V. and Princess Catharine.

In the meantime the Dauphin Charles and his partisans had retired south of the Loire, where the people were favorable to the Dauphin, who was the last champion of French national independence against foreign dominion, notwithstanding his despicable character and his lack of military skill.

The Dauphin's Stand for Independence.

Deaths of Kings Henry V. and Charles VI.

King Henry V. of England died August 31, 1422. His son and heir was but nine months old. The insane King Charles VI. died at Paris less than two months later, October 21, 1422. The infant son of Henry V. was crowned at Paris as Henry VI., King of England and France. At the same time the Dauphin, the son of Charles VI., was proclaimed King of France at Melun with the title of Charles VII. John, Duke of Bedford, the uncle of the infant King Henry VI., became the English regent of France. His main support was his alliance with Duke Philip the Good of Burgundy. The French national party repeatedly sought to detach the Burgundian duke from his alliance with the English, but without avail, and in 1423 that alliance was strengthened by the marriage of the Duke of Bedford with one of the sisters of the Duke of Burgundy.

Infant Henry VI. Crowned at Paris as King of England and France.

Charles VII.

English and Burgundian Alliance.

Abject Poverty of King Charles VII.

When the Dauphin became the rightful King of France by the death of his father Charles VI., in 1422, he was so poor that a shoemaker refused to give him credit for a pair of shoes. When the infant Henry VI. was peaceably crowned at Paris most of the great cities of France sent deputies to swear allegiance to the English, and the wise administration of the Duke of Bedford appeared to have reconciled the French to an English government. Charles VII. himself seemed to have lost all hope, as he abandoned himself to indolence and dissipation, neglecting public affairs. His friends vainly sought to inspire him with better thoughts; and one of them, when asked his opinion of some festival which occupied the young king's attention, replied: "Sire, I do not believe it possible for any one to lose a kingdom with greater gayety."

Regency of the Duke of Bedford.

Despair of Charles VII.

Charles VII. Crowned at Poitiers.

Charles VII. caused himself to be crowned King of France at Poitiers, and established his government at Bourges, wherefore the English contemptuously styled him "King of Bourges." But his party was by no means contemptible; as he was sustained by almost all of France south of the Loire, by the Duke of Anjou and by the Counts of Alençon and Clermont. He also had the aid of a large body of troops furnished by the Duke of Milan and by the King of Scotland. The Scots in his service were commanded by the Earl of Douglas, whom Charles VII. created Duke of Touraine. The Scotch Earl of Buchan was made Constable of France, but soon became a prisoner to his enemies. In 1423 and 1424 Charles VII. was unable to obtain any advantage, and was beaten by the Duke of Bedford in two pitched battles.

His Milanese and Scotch Allies.

His Defeats.

Distasteful Marriage of the Countess of Hainault and the Duke of Brabant.

A peculiar circumstance now prevented the English and the Burgundians from acting together in perfect accord and with the vigor essential to follow up their successes. This was the distasteful marriage contracted by Jacqueline, Countess of Hainault and Holland, with the Duke of Brabant, the cousin of Duke Philip the Good of Burgundy, who was his nearest relative and heir. Unable to endure

her husband, the countess fled from Hainault in 1421, obtained from the deposed Pope Benedict XIII. (Pedro de Luna) a decree of divorce, and soon afterward married Humphrey, Duke of Gloucester, a younger brother of the Duke of Bedford. This marriage menaced the Burgundian duke's right of succession to Jacqueline's territories. Duke Philip the Good therefore interfered, encouraged the Duke of Brabant to resist, challenged the Duke of Gloucester to mortal combat, and captured Jacqueline and held her in captivity at Ghent until the case could be decided by the legitimate Pope, Martin V.

Their Divorce.

Marriage of the Countess with the Duke of Glouces-ter.

Thus a breach was opened between the English and the Burgundians, and the Duke of Bedford lost faith in the Duke of Burgundy, whose defection from the English cause he considered only a question of time. The breach was still further widened by the decision of Pope Martin V., who divorced Jacqueline and Humphrey. Jacqueline escaped from the custody of Duke Philip the Good of Burgundy, and a bitter struggle followed between her and the Burgundian duke, in which the countess was defeated. Humphrey submitted to the Pope's decision and returned to England, while Jacqueline was forced to recognize the Duke of Burgundy as the heir to her dominions and to promise not to marry again without his consent.

Rupture between the English and Their Burgun-dian Allies.

Second Marriage of the Countess of Hainault Annulled.

These transactions produced a suspension of hostilities for several years between the French and the English. But King Charles VII. did not take advantage of this respite; and the jealousies and plots of his adherents, along with the weakness of his own character, rendered his position more critical and embarrassing with the progress of time.

Truce.

Weakness of Charles VII.

Finally the Duke of Bedford resolved to try a decisive campaign; and in October, 1428, he laid siege to Orleans, whose capture would open the entire region south of the Loire to the English. Orleans was defended by Dunois, one of the bravest of the French knights. Both sides were very well aware that if Orleans would be captured the fate of France would be decided. The English besieging force was commanded by the Earl of Salisbury.

English Siege of Orleans.

Unable to relieve Orleans, Charles VII. was preparing to yield to his unhappy fate and to retire into Dauphiny; but was diverted from this disgraceful course by the exhortations of his mistress, the famous Agnes Sorel, whose many commendable virtues somewhat atoned for her only crime.

Charles VII. and Agnes Sorel.

The English met with a great loss in the death of their commander, the Earl of Salisbury, who was killed by a cannon-shot while directing the siege; but this loss was atoned for early in 1429 by the total defeat of the French army in a sally while trying to intercept a convoy of herrings that were being conveyed to the English camp, wherefore this action was called the *Battle of the Herrings*.

Battle of the Herrings.

Rupture between Duke Philip the Good of Burgundy and the English.

After this French repulse the Count of Clermont retired from Orleans with two thousand of the garrison, thus leaving the people of the beleaguered city alone to defend themselves against the English. Reduced to great extremities, and without any hope of succor, they offered to surrender the city to the Duke of Burgundy, to be held in trust for their duke, who had been in captivity in England since the battle of Agincourt. The Duke of Burgundy agreed to the proposal; but the Duke of Bedford, whose distrust of the Duke of Burgundy had steadily increased, rejected the proposal; whereupon Duke Philip the Good retired to Flanders in anger, and ordered all his vassals to withdraw from the English army.

Turn in the Tide.

When Orleans, the last stronghold of the French, was thus on the point of surrender, the beleaguered city was relieved, and the deliverance of Charles VII. effected, by one of the most extraordinary circumstances recorded in history.

Jeanne d' Arc.

Joan of Arc, or Jeanne d' Arc, a poor peasant girl of Domremy, in Lorraine, about seventeen years of age, had been told by a prophecy that France could be delivered only from its English invaders by a virgin; and her mind became impressed with the belief that she herself was divinely commissioned by the Lord God Omnipotent to effect this great object.

Her Childhood and Family Relations.

Jeanne d' Arc was born January 6, 1412, in the village of Domremy, on the river Meuse, on the borders of Lorraine and Champagne. Her father was a poor peasant, having only a few sheep and cattle. He had three sons and two daughters. Jeanne never learned to read or write. She usually made two crosses at the top of the letters which she dictated. She was taught to sew and spin, to repeat the Pater Noster and the Credo. All accounts say that she was simple, chaste, modest, patient, charitable and pious. Said one: "I would that God had given me as good a daughter as she was." An English commissioner said that he could not learn anything about her that he would not have wished to find in his own sister.

Her Domestic Employments.

Jeanne worked in the field with her father, plowing, weeding, harvesting, and she also watched the sheep. She spun and assisted in the household work, and when she had no work to do she was found kneeling in the village church. While in the fields, whenever the church-bell rang, she knelt and prayed. She reproached the bell-ringer for not being always prompt, and promised him money if he would be more exact. A girl named Hauviette, her companion from childhood, thus testified concerning Jeanne: "Many's the time I have been at her father's; she was a good girl, simple and gentle." A laborer testified that she used to tend the sick and give to the poor. Said he: "I know it well; I was a child then, and she tended me."

She nourished her soul by prayer and the contemplation of nature. From her father's door she could see the borders of the great oak forest of the Vosges. Her favorite resort was a beautiful beech-tree that was visited by the country people, who danced under its shade, celebrated as the haunt of fairies. At her trial she asserted that her godmother told her that she saw fairies under that tree, but that she herself never did.

Her Favorite Resort.

Jeanne's visions came to her in midday in her father's garden, or on the blossoming heath; and these visions appeared to her as angels and saints, surrounded by an aureole of light. We have nothing but her account of these supernatural appearances, which were seen only by herself. She never varied from her statements, from first to last. Her faith in these visions was her support amid her trials, and the strength by which she overcame obstacles. She first beheld these visions when she was twelve years of age. One summer day she saw an extraordinary light while she was working in her father's garden, and a voice told her to "be good and trust in God." At her trial she said that she was frightened, and that from that moment she consecrated herself as a virgin to God.

Her Visions.

A vision again appeared to her while she was keeping sheep alone in the meadows, and then she saw the figure of an archangel with wings and a very noble air, with other angels. She saw these figures "with her bodily eyes." She said that St. Michael told her that she was to save France, and that she must go to the aid of King Charles VII. Jeanne wept, and told the archangel that she could not mount a horse or command an army. The archangel told her to go to Vaucouleurs and find the captain there, who would send her to the king.

Her Vision of an Archangel.

This vision was in 1425, when she was only thirteen years old, and was the vision in which her mission was first revealed to her. She did not, however, at first believe that it was St. Michael. The vision was repeated three times, and the archangel spoke of "the pity that there was for the Kingdom of France." She afterwards saw two female saints—St. Marguerite and St. Catharine—who constantly talked to her. She called them her "Voices," and had the most profound respect for them. She kissed the earth where they had stood, and wept when they had gone because they had not taken her with them. Her Voices spoke to her twice or thrice a week, telling her that she must go and deliver France from the English invaders. Her soul struggled between her dread greatness of the task and its responsibility, and her conscientious sense of the duty to submit to this high call.

Other Visions and "Voices."

As Jeanne grew up, the beautiful female saints continued their visits to her more frequently, floating in an atmosphere of light, their heads adorned with crowns, their voices gentle and sweet. She declared that

Her Mission.

she had three counselors; one of whom remained near her, a second came and went, and the third advised with them. The conviction became gradually fixed in her mind that she was the person mentioned in an old prophecy of Merlin, current in the country, which declared "that a woman should one day destroy France, and a virgin from the Marches of Lorraine should restore it." With this conviction came this pure soul's resolution to consecrate her life to the work.

Her Trials with Her Parents.

And now Jeanne had to encounter difficulties. Her father had suspected her condition of mind, and was troubled by it. He swore that he would rather see her drowned than go with the army. He was unable to understand her state of mind, and the prophetess was without honor in her father's house. Her hardest trial was to choose whether she would disobey her parents or the angels. Her parents endeavored to keep her at home by a trick. A young man cited her before the court of the Bishop of Toul, alleging that she had promised to marry him; but she went to Toul and easily convinced the officials that there was no truth in the assertion.

Her Uncle's Faith in Her Mission.

As she was resolved to go to Vaucouleurs, she obtained permission to visit an uncle and remain with him several days. This uncle's name was Durand Laxart, and he resided at the village of Petit Bury. He was her first convert, and at her request he proceeded to ask Captain Baudricourt to send her to King Charles VII.; but the captain considered it all nonsense, and told the old man that he had been deceived by his niece and that he had better go home and give her a good slapping. The old man's faith in his niece's mission was shaken by the captain's view of the matter, and he went back and informed Jeanne of it, but she induced him to take her to see Captain Baudricourt at Vaucouleurs. Jeanne's only arguments were her own strong conviction and her evident piety; but these finally broke down the coarse-minded captain's resistance, and he ended by sending her with an escort of seven men to King Charles VII. at Chinon, with a pass from Duke Charles of Lorraine.

Captain Baudricourt.

Jeanne Starts on Her Mission.

Thus Jeanne d' Arc departed on her mission in February, 1429, when she was only seventeen years of age. She had to cross France through a country overrun by bands of both French and English soldiers, where there was neither road nor bridge, without female attendants. This was a perilous journey of about two hundred and fifty miles; but this pure-minded girl, full of faith, feared no danger and encountered none. She adopted a soldier's attire for protection, and did not lay it aside until she was taken prisoner.

Her Soldier's Garb and Equipment.

She probably felt justified in this by having heard in the Golden Legend that her patroness, St. Marguerite, had assumed a soldier's dress in an emergency. But her best protection was the purity of her

VICTORIOUS ENTRY OF JOAN OF ARC INTO ORLEANS

From the Painting by J. J. Scherer

soul. There was an atmosphere of awe and religion around her. She was given the soldier's garb by the inhabitants of Vaucouleurs. Captain Baudricourt gave her a sword. Her uncle Laxart and another villager bought her a horse for sixteen francs. The people of Vaucouleurs followed her out of the town with good wishes, so much had their hearts been touched by her piety and sweetness.

Her Religious Air.

A knight and a squire took charge of her escort, and one of her brothers was in the party. They had many doubts and suspicions, and some of her guard were at one time half inclined to throw her into a quarry as a sorceress; but she was calm and serene, and constantly assured them that they should safely reach the Dauphin. She desired to stop at every village to hear mass, however great might be their peril, and gradually impressed them with the same serene confidence. Said she: "Fear nothing; God clears the way for me. For this was I born." It appeared almost a miracle when they found themselves at the end of their journey eleven days after it had begun.

Influence of Her Piety and Virtues.

She now considered how she would persuade King Charles VII. to trust himself, his cause and his armies to the guidance of a poor peasant girl. Her faith solved this question also. While the king was hesitating whether he would even admit her to an audience, she decided the question by the impression which she made on all who approached her, as she did at Vaucouleurs. Her confident words, her fervent and constant prayers, her frequent communions, her fastings, her holiness of life, her sweetness, her simplicity, her modesty, her good sense, created a movement in the public mind which few were able to resist.

Jeanne and King Charles VII.

After deliberating three days, King Charles VII. consented to see her. Perhaps he would have refused if his affairs had not been so desperate, but even this ray of hope appeared sufficient to cling to in his despairing condition. Besides, in overcoming the first and smaller difficulties, Jeanne constantly acquired additional force by which to overcome future and greater ones. The mere fact that she had been able to come to the king through such perils encouraged him to believe in her. Her hopeful and confident promises of relieving Orleans, which she uttered on her journey, had been reported to the besieged in that city; and Dunois, the commander of the garrison, sent to King Charles VII. to inquire as to the meaning of these rumors. An influence thus appeared to flow out from her own deep faith, to create a prestige, an enthusiasm in other minds.

Her Visit to the King.

For the purpose of proving the maiden's power, King Charles VII., upon admitting her to an audience, mingled with his courtiers; but Jeanne went to him directly, and was not embarrassed, though he denied that he was the king. Said she: "Gentle Dauphin, my name is

Jeanne la Pucelle. I come from the King of Heaven to tell you that you are the lawful heir of France, son of the king, and that I am to deliver Orleans, and then take you to Rheims to be crowned King of France."

Her Revelation of His Prayer.

It is also said that she revealed to the king what was known only to himself, herself and God—that recently in his oratory he had silently prayed that if he were the true heir to the French crown he might recover his kingdom, but if he were not the true heir that he might at least escape to Spain or Scotland.

Views as to Her Mission.

At this time, March, 1429, Jeanne was over seventeen years old. She was beautiful, of a fine figure, tall, and had a sweet and penetrating voice. Many were in favor of confiding in her at once. Among these were the Duke d' Alençon and the nobles from Lorraine. But old and more cautious statesmen desired more evidence. So it was decided to send her to Poitiers, where were the Parliament and a university, and to consult the doctors and the theologians, as well as the wisest of the civilians assembled there.

Her New Trial.

Here she encountered a new trial. The spirit was now to be examined and judged by the letter. Jeanne perceived that the struggle would be hard, but she knew that she should surmount it. Said she: "I know well that I shall have hard work to do at Poitiers, but my Master will aid me. Let us go, then, in God's name."

Her Examination at Poitiers.

It is very interesting to see how she evaded the difficulties, overcame the objections, and quietly set aside the learned cavils of the doctors by the simplicity and directness of her replies. They first asked her what signs she could show them to prove her mission. She answered: "I have not come to Poitiers to show a sign. Give me some men-at-arms and lead me to Orleans, and I will then show you signs. The sign I am to give is to raise the siege of Orleans." One of the doctors responded thus: "But if God wished to deliver the city he could do it without soldiers." Jeanne replied: "The soldiers will fight, and God will give them the victory." Brother Seguin of Limousin asked her, in his provincial dialect, in what idiom her angels spoke. She answered: "In a better idiom than yours." Said he, somewhat angrily: "Do you believe in God?" Jeanne replied: "I have more faith in God than you have." The sharp man was thus silenced.

Continued Examination.

Still the doctors proceeded with their examinations, asking repeated questions and suggesting many learned difficulties. Said Jeanne: "Why do you ask me all these things? I do not know even my A, B, C; but I have come, by God's command, to raise the siege of Orleans and crown the king."

The Doctors Decide in Her Favor.

Having nothing more to say, the doctors finally decided in the maiden's favor, to which they were somewhat influenced by the great rever-

ence which she inspired among the people of Poitiers by her holiness and piety, as she had before done at Chinon and Vaucouleurs. Jacques Gelu, Archbishop of Embrun, also took the same view in a treatise which he composed in reply to questions asked him. The devil was not believed to have any power over a virgin. Therefore, as her power could not be from below, the logical inference was that it was from above.

Jeanne Takes Command.

King Charles VII. then assigned Jeanne a command. A brave and wise counselor of the king was to attend her as esquire. She had two pages, two heralds, a chaplain, valets and guards. In a letter to his mother, Guy de Laval thus referred to the maiden: "It was beautiful to see her, in white armor, sitting on a black horse, with a small ax in her hand."

Her Arms, Armor and Standard.

The Voices told her to send for an old sword, marked with five crosses, which was behind the altar in the chapel of St. Catharine de Fierbois. The armorer went; and such a sword was found among a heap of old weapons which had formerly been given to the chapel, and which lay near the altar. But what Jeanne loved most was her standard; on one side of which was a likeness of the Saviour, seated on the clouds of Heaven, with angels adoring Him; while on the other side was written *Jhesus Maria*. Jeanne always carried this standard in the midst of battle, seldom using her sword; as she said that she did not wish to kill any one, and that she loved her standard forty times more than her sword.

Her Reform of the Army.

The soldiers of whom Jeanne now assumed command were almost as savage as wild beasts, but she soon tamed them. She sent all bad women out of the camp. She made the troops and their officers confess and cease swearing. La Hire, who had feared neither God nor man, no longer ventured to utter an oath. Observing his embarrassment for want of his accustomed expletives, Jeanne permitted him sometimes to swear by his staff. Says Michelet: "The devils had been changed into little saints."

She Leads the French Army to Orleans.

As the troops marched along the banks of the Loire from Blois to Orleans, in beautiful spring weather, Jeanne had an altar erected in the open air, where they all communed. They had been made young again by a generous ardor, which had broken through the crust of evil habit and sin, and which allowed some ray of love to warm their hearts. At night she lay down in her armor. She had no fear. She desired to go up on the side of the river where the English had built their castles or forts around Orleans. Seized with a peculiar awe, the English allowed her to enter Orleans, April 29, 1429; and in eight days she drove the English from the city, which they had been besieging for eight months.

Her Relief of Orleans.

French Ardor.

Few events in military history surpass the valor and skill with which Jeanne d' Arc planned and executed the attacks on the English forts, or the ardor which the French troops, inspired by her, manifested in their repeated assaults. The English, inflamed by rage, cursed her and insulted her, but always fled before her. She wept upon beholding the dead bodies of the enemy, slain without confession. When Talbot, the English commander, threatened to have her burned to death, she exclaimed: "Come out; and if you can take me in single combat you *may* burn me."

English Rage.

Dunois's Testimony.

Dunois testified: "Before she came to Orleans eight hundred or one thousand of my soldiers could not resist two hundred English. After she came, four hundred or five hundred of mine could conquer any number of English soldiers. I think she was sent by God, and her skill in war was more divine than human. I saw it in many things—in this among the rest. May 27, early, we attacked the Boulevard of the Bridge. Jeanne was wounded by an arrow, which entered half a foot, between her neck and shoulder. She went on fighting as before. The battle lasted all day. At eight in the evening I thought we ought to retreat. La Pucelle came to me and asked me to wait a little longer. She then went into a trellis of vines, alone; remained in prayer half an hour; returned, and seizing her banner in her two hands, went to the ditch. As soon as they saw her the English trembled and were taken with a panic. Our soldiers, on the other hand, seemed inspired with new courage, and assailed the fort, meeting no resistance."

She Turns Defeat into Victory.

Jeanne had to meet the opposition of some of the French officers, who desired to act without her or against her advice, and left her out of their councils. She sprang up suddenly at night, while sleeping with Charlotte, a daughter of the treasurer of the Duke of Orleans, and exclaimed: "My God! The blood of our people is running on the ground. It was ill done. Why was I not wakened? Quick—my arms, my horse!" She galloped off at full speed, and met the French troops fleeing. When they saw her they turned back, attacked the English fort again and captured it. She then returned to the city; but took only a few slices of bread, dipped in wine and water, for refreshment, which was sometimes the only nourishment she took during the entire day.

Jeanne and the French Officers.

Jeanne resolved to pass the whole of Ascension Day in prayer. The French captains took advantage of her absence to have a little consultation about their position. They apparently regarded her inspiration as better to animate than to direct, better to impel than to guide, better in the field than in the council. But their wisdom was folly in comparison with her inspiration. She chose the means with as much wisdom as she pursued the end with zeal. She observed that they were

concealing something from her, and said: "Tell me what you have determined. I can keep this secret and greater ones also."

Her Replies to the Officers.

It appears that the French officers had resolved to wait for reinforcements before attacking the strongest forts of the English before Orleans; but Jeanne said: "You have been at your counsel, I at mine. The counsel of my Lord will stand; yours will come to naught. Let all be ready early to-morrow for the attack. Much blood will flow, and I also shall be wounded." Yet this proud and firm nature was melted to tears by the cruel insults of the English. Said she: "The King of Heaven knows that they speak falsely." Presently she said that she felt inwardly and outwardly consoled, because she had news from her Master.

Her Desperate Assault on the English Fort.

The French captains had resolved not to yield to her, and refused to open the gates; but the next morning after Ascension Day she forced them by her overpowering energy to do so, and hurled an impetuous assault upon the principal fort of the English. This fort was so strongly intrenched by the river and a deep fosse as to be well-nigh impregnable, and was garrisoned by the flower of the English chivalry. The Duke d' Alençon afterwards examined this fort, and said that he would have undertaken to defend it for seven days against any force that could have been brought against it. But all of Jeanne's predictions were verified that day. Having crossed the ditch and been the first to plant a ladder against the walls, she was wounded. They carried her from the walls and took off her armor. She was overcome by pain and fright, and began weeping; but presently her Saints appeared to her, and she recovered her heroism.

Jeanne Wounded

Her Renewed Attack.

Pulling the arrow from her wound with her own hands, she said that she would rather die than have the charms muttered over the wound which were usually used by the soldiers. She prayed earnestly to God, and was consoled. In the meantime the French, wearied with the long and useless struggle, were everywhere retreating. Long after noon had passed, the English appeared to have gained the day; but Jeanne implored the French officers to renew the attack, and, seeing her standard near the walls, she rode toward it, exclaiming: "If it touches the walls we shall enter!"

Capture of the English Fort.

As soon as the French troops saw her they turned and rushed forward in an overflowing tide against the fort and commenced climbing its walls. The English, having believed that she had been killed, were terrified as at the sight of an apparition, and fled. A shot struck down the bridge over which the English commander was passing into the fort, and he was drowned in the ditch. At the same moment the people of Orleans opened their gates, and multitudes of them attacked the fort from the other side. Instantly the fort was occupied, and its de-

Rejoicing in Orleans.

fenders were driven out or slain. The bells of Orleans rang all night for joy, and the *Te Deum* was chanted in the churches.

Jeanne Allows the English to Retreat Unmolested.

The English were in full retreat the next morning, which was Sunday. Jeanne would not permit them to be pursued, but had an altar erected in the plain in full sight of the fleeing foe. Said she: "For the love of St. Dimanche (Sunday) do not kill them to-day. Do not attack them first. My Master does not wish us to fight to-day. Let them go—that is enough."

Jeanne Urges the Coronation of Charles VII. at Rheims.

When the first part of her prediction was thus accomplished, Jeanne desired to fulfill the rest. Said she: "Now, noble Dauphin, let us march to Rheims. I shall last only a year, or a little longer; I must be well employed." The politicians smiled at what they considered a childish folly in the maiden, thus to insist on the ceremony of coronation; but her folly was wisdom, as the great mass of the people thought they ought to accept as their king him who was the rightful heir, and who should be regularly crowned. Jeanne's assertion was to the multitude like a voice from heaven, concerning the first point, in the king's behalf. If he were crowned at Rheims the French nation would accept him as its true and legitimate sovereign. Jeanne, who was one of the people, understood this better than the courtiers; and, fortunately for the king, she was able to overrule the selfish and timid counsels of the courtiers, and to induce the king to undertake this perilous march of about two hundred miles through the midst of his most relentless enemies.

Her Capture of Jargeau.

By Jeanne's wisdom and valor, the town of Jargeau, twelve miles from Orleans, was taken by storm. Presently the celebrated Falstaffe arrived with large reinforcements for Talbot; but Jeanne constantly encouraged and animated afresh the doubting Frenchmen. Said she: "If these English were hanging to the clouds we should get them." She asked the officers: "Have you good horses?" They inquired: "What! must we fly?" She replied: "Oh, no! But you will need them to-day in pursuing the English. The gentle king will have the greatest victory to-day he has ever won." Well did Jeanne fulfill the prophecy; as Crecy, Poitiers and Agincourt were avenged on that day. Falstaffe fled; Talbot and other English officers were taken prisoners, and two thousand English were slain, at Patay, where, four months before, Falstaffe, with two thousand English, had defeated Dunois at the head of four thousand French.

Her Animation of the French Officers.

Her Victory at Patay.

Her Kindness to the English Prisoners.

Jeanne wept at the sight of this bloodshed, and endeavored to prevent the French from ill-treating their prisoners. One of the prisoners was struck on the head near her; whereupon she sprang from her horse, held his head in her arms, had a priest brought to him, comforted him, and encouraged him to face death with courage.

Skepticism of the French Nobles.

The French people had faith in Jeanne, but the nobles doubted and distrusted her. She was always obliged to overcome their resistance. They did not believe that she could take Orleans, but she took it. They lacked courage to go to Rheims, and offered a campaign on the Loire instead. She accepted their offer, and ended the campaign in a week, taking Jargeau, June 12, 1429, and Baugency after a siege of two days, June 15–17, 1429, and routing the hitherto victorious Talbot and Falstaffe at Patay, June 18, 1429. On that day (June 18, 1429) the English prestige came to an end, and one fortified city after another had opened its gates to the French king. The French generals offered no more positive resistance to Jeanne's commands; but some jealous hearts were filled with envy of her influence, and these sought privately to weaken her power over King Charles VII.

Jeanne's Repeated Victories.

Jealousy of the French Officers.

Doubts of the Royal Counselors.

During the entire march to Rheims, the king's counselors were always advising one thing, while Jeanne was urging another. When they arrived at Troyes the officers declared that they could not take so large and well defended a town, and that it could not be left in their rear with safety, so that they had better return. The Archbishop of Rheims was of this way of thinking, but one old counselor argued more wisely, reconciling earthly and heavenly wisdom. Said he: "When the king undertook this march he did so not because of his great force or abundance of money, or because it seemed possible, but merely because Jeanne said, 'Go and be crowned at Rheims!' Let us now do as she says. Ask her if we shall attack the city."

One Exception.

Jeanne's Capture of Troyes by Assault.

Jeanne, being then called, asked: "Shall I be believed?" The king replied: "If you say what is reasonable I will believe you." Jeanne repeated: "Shall I be believed?" The king replied: "Yes!" Jeanne then said: "Then, noble Dauphin, tell your people to assault the town; for, by my God, you shall enter Troyes, by force or love, in two days." Said the Chancellor: "If we could be sure of entering in six we would wait; but I have my doubts of it." Jeanne replied: "Six? You shall be masters of Troyes to-morrow!" She then led them to the assault and took Troyes, July 9, 1429.

Her Entry into Rheims.

Jeanne next led the victorious French into Rheims, July 15, 1429; and King Charles VII. was crowned in that city with all the usual ceremonies, July 17, 1429. On this occasion Jeanne occupied the highest place, holding her standard in her hand. She then cast herself on her knees, weeping, and said: "O gentle king, now is accomplished the will of God, that I should raise the siege of Orleans and bring you to be crowned here, to show that you are the right king and that the kingdom belongs to you."

Coronation of Charles VII. at Rheims.

Touched by the sight of the people, who came singing hymns to welcome the king, Jeanne said: "Oh, the good people! When I die I

Jeanne's Expressed Desire to Return Home.

should like to be buried here." Dunois asked: "When will you die, Jeanne?" She replied: "I cannot tell—when God wills. I would that he would let me return to my father and mother, and keep sheep again. They would be so glad to see me. But I have done what the Lord commanded."

Wallon's Account of Her Exploits.

The old chronicle says that Jeanne turned her eyes toward heaven, and all the lords who were present never saw so clearly, as in her looks then, that she came from God. Quoting the words of the French generals, Wallon says that the English had become thoroughly demoralized; and this remarkable maiden had in one week taken all the principal English fortresses on the Loire, defeated the best English officers and troops in the field, caused all the great cities to open their gates, and had marched to Rheims without opposition through a territory which had been wholly in the possession of the English a month before. Wallon says that Jeanne inspired a wonderful enthusiasm, and also displayed an extraordinary military ability. She rode her horse and wielded her lance like an old knight. She appeared to understand the details of war by intuition.

Her Constant Piety and Modesty.

The French people had good reason to believe in the heroine. Her modesty had not been impaired by her great fame. She claimed no merit, but said: "My work is but a ministry." She exhibited the same constant piety as before, observed daily prayers and masses, and maintained the same purity of life. In her presence evil thoughts departed from the most impure minds. Every night she staid with the most virtuous women in the place where she might be.

No Pretensions to Miraculous Power.

The heroine made no pretensions to miraculous power, although she performed works almost miraculous. Said one: "Nothing like these acts of yours have been told of, even in any book." She replied: "My Master has a book which the wisest clerk has never read." When some women of Bourges asked her to touch crosses and chaplets, she laughed, and said: "Touch them yourselves; they will be quite as good."

Jeanne Asks the King to Allow Her to Return Home.

Jeanne now felt that she had finished her mission, and she implored King Charles VII. to permit her to return to her home and her sheep. The old chronicle says that it was great pity to hear her ask to be allowed to go back to her peasant's home and tasks, as her reward in the midst of her great triumph. Two of her brothers, Pierre and Jean, had followed her to Rheims, where she was met by her father Arc and her uncle Laxart.

Domremy's Exemption.

The letters-patent of King Charles VII. exempted the village of Domremy from all taxes, for the sake of this renowned heroine, Jeanne d' Arc, the *Maid of Orleans*.

Jeanne's Family Ennobled.

Charles VII. also gave letters of nobility to the young maiden and to all her family, including the female descendants.

Still more remarkable was the tribute paid to the virtues of the valiant Maid of Orleans in after-times. After the allied armies had defeated the Emperor Napoleon I. in the memorable campaign of 1814, they came to the village of Domremy while on their march to Paris. At that hallowed spot the German troops refrained from plunder or from doing any injury to the inhabitants, out of respect to the memory of this renowned heroine, this saviour of France in the fifteenth century.

Respect of the Allies for Domremy in 1814.

Jeanne felt that her mission was ended when King Charles VII. was crowned at Rheims. Thenceforth he had a smooth way ahead of him, and cities and towns opened their gates before him wherever he went. The sagacity of the heroine's judgment was vindicated by the result, as all France now appeared ready to submit to its legitimate, native king.

Triumph of Charles VII.

Jeanne's mind now became clouded, though it was still full of energy. She lost ground on the whole, both before the foreign enemy and among her own countrymen, though she still manifested an heroic and almost superhuman courage, and though she still gained victories. Hitherto she had succeeded in everything that she had undertaken, but thenceforth she sometimes failed.

Jeanne Loses Ground.

Jeanne's first reverse was under the walls of Paris. Eventually, the French officers, jealous of her fame, allowed Duke Philip the Good of Burgundy, the ally of the English, to make her a prisoner in a sally from the town of Compiègne, May 23, 1430. The valiant maiden had a premonition of her fate, and had foretold it, but she did not lose her wonderful force of character in full view of this sad prospect.

Her Capture by Duke Philip the Good of Burgundy at Compiegne.

At the moment of her great danger under the walls of Compiègne the bells were rung to summon the soldiers to her rescue. This last homage was useless, as none came to the heroine's relief. The governor of the city treacherously ordered the gates to be closed against her in order to shut her out. Jeanne had rebuked this infamous man for his evil habits. He afterwards came to a tragic end, his wife having persuaded his barber to strangle him.

Her Capture Effected Through French Envy and Treachery.

Thus the heroic Maid of Orleans was taken prisoner by her enemies when she was only eighteen years of age, after a military career of but a year. The English thirsted for the blood of the young heroine, whose only crime was that of bravely and patriotically defending the independence of her native land; and the Duke of Bedford, the English regent in France, endeavored to buy her from the Burgundians, in which he finally succeeded by the instrumentality of the Church. The Bishop of Beauvais and the Inquisitor-General demanded her of Jean de Ligny, who finally sold her to the English for ten thousand francs. Jean de Ligny's wife threw herself at her husband's feet and entreated him not to dishonor himself, but he had taken the money.

Jeanne Sold to the English by the Duke of Burgundy.

Her Captivity at Rouen.

After passing six months in different prisons, the heroic Maid of Orleans was taken to Rouen and placed in an iron cage, with fetters on her limbs. Although she was to be tried by an ecclesiastical court for heresy and sorcery, she was kept in the English prison in the capital of Normandy, and was guarded by rude soldiers, who did not scruple to offer her coarse insults. The trial was conducted by Pierre Cauchon, Bishop of Beauvais—a name, like that of Caiaphas, doomed to eternal infamy as a cruel persecutor who sought, under the forms of law and justice, pretexts to satisfy the malice of vindictive foes by the judicial murder of an innocent captive.

Her Trial There for Sorcery by the Bishop of Beauvais.

A Travesty on Justice.

Barante says that the entire judicial proceeding was a series of falsehoods, of traps set for the unsuspecting victim—repeated violation of justice and established rights, under a hypocritical appearance of following the customary rules. A priest who pretended to be her friend was sent into her prison, after which notaries were placed behind her walls to write down what she might say to the priest. The notaries were ashamed of such a task, and declined to perform it.

Jeanne's Courage before this Priestly Court.

When brought before an assembly of doctors and divines this poor girl displayed a courage as great as she had ever exhibited in leading the hosts of France to battle and to victory. The doctors and divines who tried her allowed her no counsel, but her honesty and good sense were the best helps by which she escaped the snares in which they endeavored to entrap her. She gave way to neither anger nor fear in consequence of their threats and violence. The assembly was frequently astonished by the readiness and beauty of her answers. They asked her if she knew that she was "in the grace of God." She replied: "It is a great thing to answer such a question." Jean Talri, one of the assessors, remarked: "Yes, Jeanne, it *is* a great question, and you are not bound to answer it." The bishop cried out to the assessor: "You had better be silent." Jeanne replied: "If I am not, may God make me so; if I am, may God keep me so. But if I were not in the grace of God, I should not have known what to do." The manuscript says: "They were much astonished, and for that time finished the examination."

Her Examination as to Her Standard.

They asked her again about her standard. She replied: "I carried it instead of a lance, so as not to kill any one. I have never killed any one." For the purpose of accusing her of magic, they asked her what virtue she supposed there was in the standard. She answered: "I said to it, 'Go boldly among the English,' and then I followed it myself." They asked her why she brought it to the altar at Rheims. She replied: "It had been where there was danger; it was right that it should be where there was honor." They inquired: "What did the people mean in kissing your hands, feet and garments?" She re-

sponded: "The poor people came gladly to me because I did them no wrong. I supported and helped them, as I had the power." Thus simple, innocent truth was too much for craft.

Her Rebuke of the Bishop of Beauvais.

Jeanne sometimes spoke very sublimely. Once she said: "My Voices, to-day, have told me to answer you very boldly." She strictly followed their advice. She rebuked the Bishop of Beauvais for his part in the trial, and warned him of the awful responsibility which he would encounter. She asserted: "Bethink you what you do, for truly I am sent of God. You put yourself in great danger. Yes, I am come from God. I have nothing to do here. Send me back to God from whom I came." They endeavored to make her say that the Voices had inspired her with un-Christian feelings.

Her Examination as to the Burgundians.

They asked her: "Were the inhabitants of Domremy Burgundians?" She replied: "There was only one Burgundian in the village; and I could have wished that his head were cut off, provided it was the will of God." They inquired: "Did the Voices tell you you ought to hate the Burgundians?" She answered: "I did not love them so well after I found that the Voices were for the King of France." They inquired: "Did you have a great desire to injure the Burgundians?" She replied: "I had a great desire and wish that the king should have his kingdom again." They asked: "Do you think you did well in leaving home without the consent of your father and mother?" She answered: "They have forgiven me." They asked: "Do you think, then, that you did not sin in acting so?" She responded: "If God commanded me, ought I not to have done it? Though I had a hundred fathers and mothers, I would have left them if God had ordered it."

As to the Archangel Michael and the Fairies.

The judges could not conceive that Jeanne should have seen the archangel Michael and the saints, and they thought it quite probable that she should have had intercourse with fairies and evil spirits. They endeavored to make her say that she had talked with fairies under the May-tree; but she answered that others had declared that they had seen fairies there, but that she herself had never seen any. She admitted that many people who had the fever visited the May-tree and drank of the neighboring fountain, but she did not know whether they were cured or not. She had heard some old people say that they saw fairies under the May-tree, but she declared that she did not know whether it was true or not.

As to the English Arrows.

They asked her: "Did you not tell the soldiers that you would turn aside the English arrows?" She answered: "I only told them not to be afraid; but many were wounded at my side, and I was wounded myself." They asked her if she had ever been where she saw the English killed. She replied: "Who of us has not seen war? But of such sad things let us speak softly and with a low voice." An English nobleman

who was present was touched by this reply, and said: "I would she were an Englishwoman."

As to the Attack on Paris and Hate of the English.

The judges asked: "Was it well done to attack Paris on our Lady's Day?" She replied: "It is well to keep the festivals of our Lady; it would be well to keep them every day." They inquired: "Do your saints hate the English?" She answered: "They love whatever God loves, and hate what He hates." They asked: "Does God hate the English?" She responded: "As for God's love or hate for the souls of the English, I know nothing; but I know that He will cause them all to be driven from France, except those who die here." They inquired: "Jeanne, do you know by revelation whether you will escape?" She replied: "This has nothing to do with your trial. Do you wish me to accuse myself?" They asked: "But have the Voices told you nothing about it?" She answered: "This does not concern the trial. I leave the matter in the Lord's hands."

As to Wearing Men's Clothes and Submitting to the Church.

After all their examinations, the judges failed to make out any case against her concerning sorcery, and they were obliged to abandon that charge. The only points against her were wearing a man's dress and declining to submit to the decisions of the Church. It was contrary to a text in Deuteronomy to wear a man's dress. But the real point against her consisted in the conflict between God's authority, speaking in her heart, and the authority of the visible Church.

Her Replies as to Submission to the Church.

They asked her if she would submit to the decision of the Church as to whether her Voices had told her the truth or not, and let the Church decide on all her words and actions. She answered: "I love the Church, and would support it with all my power; but as to my works, I must leave them to the judgment of God Who sent me." When the same question was repeated, she replied: "Our Lord and the Church are all one." They then contrived a distinction, for the purpose of inducing her to reject the authority of the visible Church. They told her that there was a distinction between the Church Triumphant above, consisting of God and the saints, and the Church Militant below, and asked her to which she submitted. She responded: "To the Church Triumphant." They then asked: "And do you refuse to submit to the Church Militant?" She said: "I will answer no more to-day."

As to the Church Militant and the Council of Basle.

But there were some honest men among the counselors who could not bear this. Three of them were bold enough to visit Jeanne in her prison and to tell her that the true Church Militant was not composed of her enemies, but of the Pope and the General Councils, and that she might appeal from her prejudiced judges to the Pope and to the Council of Basle, which was then about to be convened. One of the counselors had courage sufficient to advise the heroine publicly, before the tribunal, to submit to the Council of Basle. She asked: "What is a

General Council?" Brother Isambert replied: "It is a congregation of the Universal Church, and is composed of your friends as well as of the other party." She answered: "Oh! in that case I submit." The bishop thus addressed Isambert: "Be silent!" He also forbade the notary from writing down Jeanne's answer. The poor girl said: "Alas! you write what is against me, but not what is for me."

Question as to Her Submission to the Earthly Church.

The account of the trial from the record of March 31, 1431, contains the following question and answer. The question put to her was: "Will you refer yourself to the judgment of the Church on this earth, for all you have said and done, good or bad? Especially, will you submit to the decision of the Church concerning all the charges made against you for different offenses and crimes, and in regard to the whole of the present process?"

Her Reply Thereto.

Her answer was: "As to all that is required, I refer myself to the judgment of the Church Militant, provided it commands nothing which I am unable to do; and I consider it impossible to declare that my Voices and Revelations have not come from God. Nothing in the world will make me declare this. Whatever God causes me to do, whatever he commands or shall command—that I must not fail to do, for any man alive. It is impossible for me to take back this. In case the Church wishes me to do anything contrary to the commands I have received from God, I never can consent for anything in the world."

As to Her Revelations.

Then she was asked: "If the Church Militant declares your Revelations to be illusions, or to be diabolical, will you submit to the Church in this matter?" She answered: "I will submit to God, whose commandments I shall always obey. I know that the matter spoken of in this process have been done by the order of God. Whenever I affirm in this process that I have acted by God's order, I can never deny it. If the Church commands the contrary, I shall submit to no one in the world, but only to God, Whose commands I shall always obey."

Her Reply.

Final Question and Answer.

They then asked her: "Ought you not to submit to the Church of God on earth—that is, to the Pope (our Lord), to the cardinals, archbishops, bishops, and other prelates of the Church?" She replied: "Yes; I do submit—provided that God is obeyed first."

The Bishop of Beauvais's Twelve Articles.

After the examinations were concluded, the Bishop of Beauvais selected twelve articles from what he chose to consider the heroine's answers, and sent them to the leading doctors and ecclesiastical tribunals for their opinions. These twelve articles were so drawn up as to make it possible only to give such a reply as would condemn her. The main point was her refusal to submit to the tribunal of the Church if it should contradict the Voice of God in her own soul. She was therefore practically condemned, as Luther and the other leaders of the Reformation a century later were condemned, for denying the authority of the

His Practical Condemnation of Jeanne.

Church Militant. Jeanne was also condemned for wearing men's clothes, and for believing in revelations which probably came from evil spirits.

Her Sudden Illness. The English now very much desired that the heroine who had so ruined their cause should be burned. She became ill about this time, and the great Earl of Warwick very much feared that she might die a natural death. Said he: "You must cure her. The king has bought her. She must be burned! You must not let her die!"

The English Earl of Warwick. This Earl of Warwick—who manifested such rancor against a poor peasant girl who had so deeply wounded English pride—was the brave and gallant knight of that age, the model gentleman, full of chivalric ideas. He made a pilgrimage to the Holy Land, and did not miss a tournament by the way. He himself gave a tournament at the gates of Calais, challenging the entire chivalry of France.

English Pride Wounded. It was intolerable to the English that a poor maiden had so frightened them; that she had driven them half the length of France; that she had taken them in their fortresses and had conquered them in the field. The vengeance of English pride thus severely mortified could be satisfied only by burning the young heroine to death.

Jeanne's Refusal to Confess that Her Visions were Delusions. This being Passion Week, they refused her the sacraments of the Church. The object of the Bishop of Beauvais was to make her submit to the Church and confess that her visions were deceptive. He did not care what became of her after that. He therefore tried every means to induce her to submit; threatening her with torture and fire if she refused, and promising her the mercy and protection of the Church if she submitted. But the heroine stood firm in her refusal day after day. Deprived of the outward consolations of religion, she relied on her faith.

Her Vigorous Answers. Said she: "For my *faith*, I submit to the Church below; for my *acts*, I will submit only to the Church of Heaven. I would rather die than revoke what I have done by the Lord's commands." She was told: "But you cannot hear mass on Good Friday, except you submit." She replied: "Our Lord can let me hear it without you." She was then asked: "Will you submit to the Church Militant?" She answered: "Provided it does not command what is impossible." The next question to her was: "Do you not think you ought to obey the Pope and the bishops, and the Universal Church?" Her reply was: "Yes, our Lord being first obeyed." She was next asked: "Do your Voices forbid you to submit to the Church Militant?" She answered: "They do not, our Lord being obeyed first."

Erection of the Scaffolds for Her Execution. Finally, a public display was prepared, May 24, 1431. Two scaffolds were constructed. The cardinals, bishops and doctors were seated on one scaffold; Jeanne, with the executioner and priests, on the

other. The English assembled in crowds, expecting that she would be burned; but the bishop's object was to obtain a public abjuration from the heroine. She for a long time refused to sign anything; but being threatened with instant death by burning if she refused, and being promised pardon and protection if she consented, while being also exhausted by the long discussions and arguments, she finally agreed to sign a short form of abjuration in which she submitted to the Church and confessed that her Voices might have deceived her, saying at last: "I submit to the Church." This abjuration occurred in the cemetery of St. Ouen, near the beautiful church of that name.

Her Enforced Modified Abjuration.

A much longer form of adjuration was then presented for her signature. This infuriated the English, who were impatient in their desire to have the poor girl burned to death, and they commenced throwing stones at the bishop, also shouting: "You have not earned the king's money; you are going to let her escape." The Earl of Warwick said: "Things go badly if she escapes." The holy man replied: "Never mind; we will soon have her again." They pronounced her pardon, which was a sentence of life-long imprisonment; and then they sent her back to the English prisons, instead of committing her to the guardianship of the Church.

English Fury and the Bishop of Beauvais.

After thus making a partial submission to the Church, Jeanne resumed her female dress in obedience to its commands. But it had been arranged that she should not escape. After being received by the Church to penitence and absolved from the excommunication, she had expected to be released. Erard, the preacher who had obtained her abjuration, had promised that she should be restored to liberty. As she had been sentenced to life-long imprisonment as a salutary penance "on the bread of grief and water of anguish," she was justified in demanding that her imprisonment should be in the prisons of the Church. This was suggested to the bishop by several; and Jeanne said: "Men of the Church, carry me to your prison, so that I shall not be any more in the hands of the English!" But this was not the bishop's intention, and he clearly showed himself to be an accomplice of the English by his heartless conduct in saying: "Take her back to the place where you found her."

Jeanne's Partial Submission to the Church.

Sentence to Life Imprisonment.

Insults were thereafter offered to the heroine in her cell, and she was chained as before. Some witnesses said that her woman's dress was carried away while she was asleep. At any rate, they must have intentionally left the man's dress where she could get it, and the design of this was doubtless to tempt her to put it on again. She said: "Gentlemen, you know I am forbidden to wear that." Finally, however, she put on the soldier's garb, as she had no other, or because she felt more secure by so doing. They then cried out: "She is taken." The

Jeanne Forced to Put on a Soldier's Dress.

She is Condemned Therefor.

judges came, and would not listen to her complaints and excuses. Said she: "Put me among women, and I will wear a woman's dress."

The Judge's Questions and Her Answers.

The judges asked her: "Why have you again worn your man's dress?" She answered: "Because it is more proper to wear a man's dress than a woman's when I am among men." She also said that she had a right to wear it again, because they had violated their promises to let her go to mass and to take off the irons from her limbs. Continuing their examination, the judges said: "You abjured your errors, and promised not to wear the man's dress again." She replied: "I had rather die than be thus chained; but if you will take off the irons and let me go to mass, put me in a good prison and let me have a woman with me, I will be good and do what the Church commands."

Questions as to Her Voices and Her Answers.

The judges, desiring to find some foundation for the charge of "relapse," asked her if she had heard her Voices again since Thursday, the day of her abjuration. She made no attempt to escape the snare, but promptly replied: "Yes." They asked: "And what did they say to you?" She answered: "God has taught me, by St. Catharine and St. Marguerite, that I have committed a sad treachery in abjuring to save my life; that I damned myself to save my life." She also said that her Voices had told her what to do that day, to answer the preacher fearlessly from the scaffold, because he was a false preacher. She said: "If I should admit that God did not send me I should damn myself. It is true that God sent me. My Voices told me that I did very wrong in confessing that what I have done was not well done."

Her Deliverance to the Civil Authorities to be Burned.

The clerk who wrote down her answers asserted that she said that she wore a man's dress to protect her modesty. The judges decided that she should be delivered over to the civil authorities to be put to death. When it was announced to her that she must die the cruel death by fire, her woman's nature gave way, and she commenced weeping bitterly and tearing her hair, crying out: "Alas! shall my body be burned, which I have preserved pure and uncorrupt? I had rather be beheaded, seven times over, than be burned."

Jeanne at the Scaffold.

On her way to execution, she cried out: "O Rouen, Rouen, must I die here!" She was taken to the scaffold at nine in the morning, May 30, 1431, after having taken the communion by the bishop's permission. Men's minds on one side were more and more giving way to remorse, pity and grief; while a corresponding rage was increasing on the other side. Those who manifested the least sympathy for her were in imminent peril from the English, but still they managed to show such sympathy.

Her Three Spiritual Friends.

Three friends who remained with the heroine to the last were Brother L' Advenu, Brother Isambert, and Massieu, one of the secretaries—all three of whom the English had threatened for having given her their

advice and manifested pity for her during the trial. The people along the streets also wept as she passed on her way to the scaffold, her sweet face still wet with a woman's tears. The priest who had falsely pretended to be her friend in the prison, for the purpose of betraying her confidence, repented, burst through the guards, flung himself down before her, accused himself aloud of his treachery, and implored pardon from the poor girl and from God. The priest would have been instantly killed by the enraged English if the Earl of Warwick had not interfered.

Repentance of the Treacherous Priest.

A sermon was preached as the introduction to the dreadful ceremony. At the close of this sermon, the valiant Maid of Orleans wept and asked the forgiveness of all, while she forgave their wrongs against herself, and implored them to pray for her. Even the hard-hearted Bishop of Beauvais and the cruel English were touched and were unable to refrain from tears; but still the bishop pronounced to her the sentence: "We cut you off from the Church as a relapsed penitent, as a rotten member; we give you over to the secular power, entreating it to moderate its sentence and spare you the pain of death and mutilation of limb."

Jeanne Asks and Gives Pardon.

The Bishop's Sentence.

She kissed the cross given her by an English soldier, and then ascended the wooden pile raised on a foundation of plaster. Looking on the city and the silent multitude about the scaffold, she exclaimed: "O Rouen, Rouen! I fear me much thou wilt have to suffer for my death!" She shrieked aloud upon seeing the executioner apply the fire. The priest who stood by her paid no attention to the flames. She then forgot herself and entreated him to leave the scaffold.

Final Scenes at the Scaffold.

When the flames commenced rolling up around her she first cried out for water. Then she called on God, and finally said: "My Voices have not deceived me." In the midst of the flames she saw that the safety and deliverance that her Voices had promised were not the deliverance from death, but the deliverance of her soul. She appeared to have an inward light which "quenched the violence of the fire." Her last words were "Jesus! Jesus!"

Jeanne's Last Words at the Stake.

All this was testified by the priest who had just descended from the scaffold. Wallon says: "She finished her prayer in heaven." Even the rude English soldiers shed tears, and exclaimed: "We are lost! We have burned a saint! Would God my soul were where hers is now!" Some endeavored to laugh. One man had sworn that he would throw a fagot on the pile. As he approached he heard her cry to Jesus; whereupon he became ill and almost fainted, and was carried to a neighboring tavern. Said he: "I saw a dove escape from her mouth." The executioner went in utter dismay to Brother Isambert to confess, and could not believe that God would forgive him, so utterly was he overcome by remorse.

Her Final Prayer.

Self Reproach of Her English Executioners.

Jeanne's Martyrdom to Her Country's Independence.

Thus perished the valiant Jeanne d' Arc, the Maid of Orleans—the most renowned heroine of all history—a martyr to the cause of her country's independence. This poor young maiden, taken prisoner in war, suffered for no other crime than for defending with matchless heroism her country and her king. She was a woman in the Age of Chivalry, when the greatest thing talked of was the duty of protecting afflicted dames and damsels—a virgin in an age when the worship of the Virgin had almost taken the place of the worship of God. Yet in that age they united savage cruelty with pharisaic hypocrisy, and tried this poor peasant girl for heresy and sorcery, endeavoring to lead her by falsehoods and deceptions into self-accusation; and, when all these arts of bishops and noblemen were thwarted by the transparent truth and holy innocence of the young heroine, they dragged her to the stake and burned her to death, under a shallow pretext which could not deceive any one.

Her False Accusers.

The Great Change from the Middle Ages.

We see in this how much has been gained to the world by the change from the Middle Ages. And yet there are those who talk of the "Ages of Faith"—who lament the degeneracy of our own times, and grieve that the Age of Chivalry has passed forever. In the beginning of the last century was a great leader, who, like Jeanne d' Arc, had led the French armies against the English. He was their most inveterate foe—the invader of every nation which his insatiate ambition could covet and his wonderful military genius could hope to overcome. Yet, after deluging Europe with a sea of blood, he was finally made a prisoner by this same English nation, which had spent millions of treasure and hundreds of thousands of lives to check his victorious course. And yet, many considered it too harsh a punishment when he was placed in a remote island, though surrounded with friends, books, comforts and luxuries. Thus, we see how much more magnanimous was the nineteenth century than was the fifteenth—how much the world had advanced in four centuries. How different the treatment of Napoleon Bonaparte, the despoiler of nations, was to that of the Maid of Orleans, the defender and restorer of her country's independence, who suffered the most cruel martyrdom in that cause.

Contrast in the Treatment of Jeanne d' Arc and Napoleon Bonaparte.

Reversal of Her Sentence.

Though Jeanne d' Arc suffered death by the sentence of the Roman Catholic Church, at the demand of the English, in May, 1431, a tribunal of the same Church reëxamined and reversed this sentence twenty-five years later, A. D. 1456. King Charles VII., whose failing fortunes the valiant Maid of Orleans had restored, but who had ungratefully made no effort to save her in her peril, was now better advised, and in 1450 he ordered a new trial of her case. In consequence of this royal demand, and in compliance with the request of the martyred heroine's mother and brothers, Pope Calixtus III. directed the Archbishop of

Rheims and the Bishops of Paris and Coutances to preside at the trial, which took place in 1456.

Testimony in Her Favor.

This investigation lasted from seven to eight months, and witnesses came from all parts to testify in the heroine's favor. The old people from Domremy, her native town; the younger companions of her childhood; Dunois and the Duke d' Alençon, her comrades in military leadership; Louis de Contes, her page; D' Aulon, her squire; Pasquerel, her confessor; those who saw her in her prison, and those who stood near her at the scaffold; even the officials and notaries employed by her enemies—all testified in this trial to different traits in her lovely character.

Her Vindication by the Court of Revision.

These witnesses all testified to Jeanne's pure and modest life in her father's home, her simplicity of character and her inspired firmness of soul during her famous career, her patience amid her sufferings after she had been sold to the English, her boldness before the tribunal of her enemies, and the sudden illuminations which showed her the crafty purposes of her judges. After hearing this evidence the Court of Revision declared that the charges under which the heroine was condemned were calumnious and false, and that the sentence under which she had suffered martyrdom was null and void; thus vindicating the memory of the valiant maid. The Court of Revision ordered that this decree be read publicly in the city of Rouen, where she had been so cruelly put to death, and likewise in the city of Orleans, which she had delivered from the English.

Authenticity of Her History.

Thus there is no history which is substantiated by more authentic materials than that of Jeanne d' Arc, and it is a remarkable fact that we have almost as full and exact an account of her life as if we had known her ourselves. The records of her trial and of the Court of Revision have been preserved in the Royal Library of Paris for four and a-half centuries. Ninety witnesses—thirty-four of them from her native town—had testified in her favor before the Court of Revision; and three of the greatest of French generals—Dunois, the Duke d' Alençon, and De Gaucourt—bore witness to her military prowess; while we also have her own words given in reply to thirty public and private examinations during her trial; so that her whole life is revealed to us.

Monuments to Her Memory

Not satisfied with putting the Maid of Orleans to death with the utmost barbarity, the English sought to blast her reputation and destroy her character by the sentence of the ecclesiastical tribunals. They also cast her ashes into the Seine, so that no monument might ever be erected over her remains; but they had unconsciously erected a far nobler and more enduring monument to her memory in the trial itself. In the city of Rouen, the scene of her martyrdom at the hands of her cruel foes, is a beautiful monument, surmounted by a statue of the heroine, commemorating her ill-fated end.

Final Justice to Her Memory. The four and a-half centuries which have passed since the death of the Maid of Orleans have purified her memory from the stains with which ignorance and prejudice had soiled it, and the nineteenth century did complete justice to the heroine of the fifteenth. Patient research has discovered, among the contemporary memoirs of her time, and in the records of her trial and the Court of Revision, the amplest means of vindicating her pure and noble virtues. The most brilliant French authors have embalmed her memory in prose and verse, and one of the most renowned of German poets has beautifully illustrated her character in one of his most charming dramas; but, beautiful as is Schiller's drama, any one who reads the simple memoirs of her life and the events of her brief career must feel that these constitute a far nobler poem, as nothing can surpass the touching beauty of the facts themselves. In the language of Maria Lowell, the American poetess, the young heroine can truly be called

> "The whitest lily on the shield of France
> With heart of virgin gold."

Michelet's Reflection. Says the great French historian, Michelet: "It was fit that the saviour of France should be a woman. France herself is a woman. She has the fickleness of the sex, but also its amiable gentleness, its facile and charming pity, and the excellence of its first impulses."

Subsequent Impostors. It has frequently occurred, after the death of any one who has deeply moved the popular mind, that a belief has prevailed that the person was still living and would reappear. This belief has often induced impostors to come forward who pretended to be that very person. It was so in the case of Jeanne d' Arc. A false Jeanne d' Arc made her appearance in 1452, twenty-one years after the execution of the Maid of Orleans, claiming to be that veritable personage. She wore a man's dress, went about amusing herself and feasting, and imposed on many.

Claude de Lys. An amiable young maiden, daughter of Claude de Lys and grandniece of Jeanne d' Arc, was the very picture of her illustrious grandaunt. Brought up in the same house and surrounded by memories of Jeanne, this maiden thought herself destined to continue the heroine's career. Dressed in men's clothes, she exercised herself in the use of arms and became a perfect equestrian. She was prepared to show, if occasion required, that the blood of the Maid of Orleans was not extinct; but the occasion never presented itself, and she married and lived a quiet life.

Continuance of French Victories. Having finished the account of the wonderful career of Jeanne d' Arc, we will proceed with the narrative of events which followed her martyrdom. The Duke of Bedford had expected that the execution of

the heroine would turn the tide of war in his favor. He caused the young Henry VI. of England to be crowned King of France in the cathedral of Notre Dame in Paris, but the ceremony aroused no enthusiasm, and the hostile conduct of the Parisians soon caused Henry VI. to retire into Normandy. Although the Maid of Orleans no longer led the French armies, victory still perched upon the French banners, and reverses fell thick and fast upon the English. The French forces under Dunois took Chartres, and the English under the Duke of Bedford were defeated in a pitched battle at Lagny.

French Capture of Chartres.

Battle of Lagny.

The Duchess of Bedford, the sister of Duke Philip the Good of Burgundy, died in November, 1432, thus severing the tie which bound the Dukes of Burgundy and Bedford, whereupon a coolness sprang up between them, which was soon increased by the remarriage of the Duke of Bedford without consulting or communicating with the Duke of Burgundy. Disgusted with the English alliance, Duke Philip the Good openly broke with the English regent, and entered into negotiations with Charles VII.

Duke Philip the Good of Burgundy Breaks with His English Allies.

A reconciliation was arranged between the King of France and the Duke of Burgundy in 1435; and, as the Duke of Bedford had died in the meantime, Philip the Good openly espoused his king's cause against the English, but made Charles VII. pay liberally for this reconciliation. The French king rendered ample satisfaction to Duke Philip the Good for the murder of his father, pleading his extreme youth at the time of the murder in extenuation of his share in the crime. He ceded the counties of Macon and Auxerre, and some territories on the Somme and in Ponthieu, to the Burgundian duke. The King of France also released the Duke of Burgundy from all homage to the French crown, thus recognizing him as an independent sovereign, and his dominions as an independent state.

His Reconciliation with King Charles VII.

Thus all France was again united, after twenty-nine years of civil war. Isabella of Bavaria, the mother of King Charles VII., who had been the cause of so many woes to France because of her reckless intrigues, died at Paris three days after the treaty between the King of France and the Duke of Burgundy was signed. As she had been universally despised, her funeral was performed hastily at St. Denis, without any of the honors due to her rank.

Reunion of France.

Death of Queen-mother Isabella.

Duke Philip the Good of Burgundy now united his arms with those of King Charles VII., and their combined forces drove the English from Paris in the spring of 1436. The French king proclaimed a general amnesty, and was joyfully acknowledged by the Parisians as their sovereign. The long reign of violence caused brigandage to succeed the war upon so large a scale that great efforts were needed to suppress the evil. Many of the French king's soldiers formed themselves into ma-

The English Driven from Paris.

Suppression of Lawlessness.

rauding bands and terrorized the country, but they were exterminated with a stern hand by the Constable de Richemont.

Origin of the French Standing Army.

As Charles VII. was now secure in the possession of the French crown, he manifested a degree of energy and vigor for which none had given him credit. In October, 1439, he summoned the States-General at Orleans, and in that body he published a highly important measure. By this he abolished the old feudal levies of the nobles, and made it high treason for the nobles to enroll troops without the king's permission. He established a regular military force for the defense of the French kingdom, to be paid out of the public treasury, and the officers to be appointed by the king. This was the origin of the standing army of France, and was the death-blow to feudalism in that kingdom. The

Rebellion Suppressed.

Dukes of Bourbon and Alençon and some of the other French nobles rebelled against this measure, and the Dauphin Louis was persuaded to join in the rebellion; but it did not receive the popular support, and was sternly discountenanced by Duke Philip the Good of Burgundy, so that King Charles VII. was enabled to reduce the rebellious nobles to submission.

Marriage of Henry VI. of England with Margaret of Anjou.

In the meantime the English had suffered some severe reverses in Normandy and Gascony. In 1444 a truce of twenty-two months was concluded between the French and the English, and a marriage was negotiated between King Henry VI. of England and Margaret of Anjou, niece of the French king's queen. This marriage occurred at Nancy in the spring of 1445. The war between the French and the

Final Expulsion of the English from France.

English was renewed in 1449. The English steadily lost all their conquests in France, and by the close of 1453 only the towns of Calais and Guines with the narrow strip of adjacent territory remained in their possession.

Depopulation of Northern France.

The wars had so depopulated the North of France that wolves and other beasts of prey infested even the city of Paris. In 1437 the wolves entered the city by the Seine and devoured about fifteen persons. The

Wolves in Paris

next year they entered Paris a second time, killed four women and severely bit seventeen other individuals, eleven of whom died of their

The Wolf Courtland.

wounds. There was especially one formidable wolf, called *Courtland*, because he had no tail, that became an object of universal fear. When any person was leaving the city, it was said, "*gardez vous de Courtland*," which subsequently passed into a proverb.

The Dauphin's Plots and Crimes.

No sooner had France been freed from the power of a foreign foe than Charles VII. found his peace disturbed by the artifices and cabals of his eldest son, Louis, the Dauphin. This prince was a monster of depravity, and employed assassins to murder a nobleman who had incurred his dislike. When the attempt was discovered the king severely reproved his son's treachery; and Louis, impatient of control, retired

into Dauphiny, firmly resolved never again to be subject to his father's power. He is accused of having poisoned Agnes Sorel, his father's beloved mistress; but his character is adequately tarnished by undeniable crimes, without those which have no other foundation than mere suspicion.

His Retirement into Dauphiny.

The people of Guienne, particularly the citizens of Bordeaux, had always been remarkable for their attachment to the English. After they had remained subject to Charles VII. for some time they grew weary of a government which disregarded their privileges and loaded them with oppressive taxes. Deputies were sent to England to entreat King Henry VI. to receive the people of Guienne again under his protection and to send troops to aid them in expelling the French. The English king sent Talbot, the most distinguished general of the tin , to Guienne with a military force. At first Talbot won several victories and conquered most of the province, but the French king assembled his forces and overpowered the little English army near Castillon, where Talbot and his gallant son were slain and most of their troops were killed or taken prisoners. Bordeaux surrendered to the army of King Charles VII., after a short siege. Several of its citizens were exiled; two castles called the Chateau Trompette and the Chateau Ha were erected to keep the inhabitants in subjection; and the duchy of Guienne, or Aquitaine, was permanently annexed to the crown of France.

Revolt of Guienne in Favor of the English.

English Victories and Defeats.

French Capture of Bordeaux.

Permanent Annexation of Guienne.

Thus Charles VII., surnamed *the Victorious*, was sovereign of the whole Kingdom of France, except the town of Calais, on the Strait of Dover, which remained in England's possession two centuries longer. His last years should have been his happiest, as France was then freed from civil and foreign wars, but that was the most unhappy period of his life. He abandoned himself wholly to his favorites and mistresses, thus entirely neglecting the affairs of state.

Last Years of Charles VII., the Victorious.

After the Dauphin Louis had retired into Dauphiny he became the center of every intrigue against his father, and married a princess of the house of Savoy against his father's wishes. His cruelties and exactions in that province were so intolerable that his subjects were obliged to appeal to the king. Charles the Victorious sent Dammartin to arrest the disobedient Dauphin, in 1456; but Louis had been informed of Dammartin's approach, and fled to Burgundy, where Duke Philip the Good received him with all the respect due to the son of his king. The French king sent frequent embassies to the Burgundian duke, demanding that he should withhold his protection from the disobedient Dauphin, and warning him that "he nourished a serpent who would repay his hospitality by attempting his life." The Duke of Burgundy disregarded these remonstrances, although he knew that the Dauphin had excited his own son, the Count of Charolois, to rebellious

The Dauphin's Intrigues against His Father.

The Dauphin's Refuge with Duke Philip the Good of Burgundy.

acts. The Dauphin finally took refuge at the Flemish court at Brussels.

Insanity and Death of Charles the Victorious.

King Charles the Victorious was so exasperated against his son that it was with difficulty that he was prevented from disinheriting him and bequeathing the French crown to his second son. The king sank into a state of insanity, which he had inherited from his father. He was positively informed that his wicked son had bribed the royal domestics to poison him. The king's apprehensions became so great that he abstained wholly from eating for several days, not knowing from whom he could safely receive food; and he finally died for want of nourishment, in July, 1461, in the fifty-ninth year of his age and the thirty-ninth of his reign.

Decline of Chivalry.

The wars of Charles the Victorious show that the spirit of chivalry was fast declining. We find no traces of that individual heroism which gives the history of the wars with Edward III. of England and the Black Prince such a romantic interest, and Agincourt was the last great battle in which the superiority of the English archers was made available. The bow and arrow were gradually superseded by the use of fire-arms; gunpowder having been invented a century before by the German monk Berthold Schwarz. Cavalry, hitherto the most important part of an army, was considerably diminished in value by the new system of tactics.

Fire-arms and Gunpowder.

Decay of Feudalism.

These changes in the art of war had great influence on the political condition of society; as the knights and the small landed proprietors, who had hitherto possessed much influence by the importance of their services, sunk suddenly when these services were performed by mercenary soldiers. Thus the power of the feudal aristocracy was destroyed, and the royal power in France became absolute.

Absolute Royal Power.

SECTION III.—VALOIS DYNASTY AND CONSOLIDATION OF FRANCE (A. D. 1461–1515).

Louis XI., A. D. 1461–1483.

Charles the Victorious was succeeded as King of France by his son, Louis XI., who was in Flanders at the time of his father's death, in 1461. He instantly returned to France, stopping at Rheims for his coronation, after which he hastened to Paris and assumed the government, being escorted to the capital by Duke Philip the Good of Burgundy and his son with about fourteen thousand cavalry.

His Accession.

His Previous Experience in Statecraft.

Louis XI. was one of the most remarkable of French kings. He was thirty-nine years old at his accession, and was therefore in the prime of life and of matured experience. He had for some years ruled Dauphiny as an independent prince in defiance of his father's will, and

LOUIS XI AND CHARLES THE BOLD AT PERONNE

From the Painting by G. H. Thomas

had learned the difficult and delicate business of statecraft, thus becoming proficient in the art of judging men. He was by nature a man of cool, clear understanding, profound sagacity and strong will, and had learned to sacrifice every personal feeling and interest to the success of his plans.

His Aim and Policy.

Louis XI. ascended the French throne with the determination to destroy the last vestige of feudalism and to erect an absolute monarchy upon the ruins of the Feudal System. His constant policy during his entire reign was to reduce the great nobles of France to a position of insignificance and to concentrate all the powers of the state in the hands of the sovereign.

His Cnaracteristics.

He was fully qualified for the success of his plans. Government was a science with him; as he had studied it profoundly, and had learned how to profit to the fullest extent by the weaknesses, the vices and the passions of mankind. He was a consummate master in the arts of dissimulation and duplicity, and made it his chief object to overreach and circumvent others, considering successful fraud the most conclusive evidence of talent. He made use of cajolery, corruption and perfidy where his predecessors would have used violence. He understood perfectly how to play off one class of interest against another, how to foment the seeds of discord and estrangement so as to profit thereby afterward. When he saw fit he treated the victims entrapped by his cunning with a tyrannical cruelty seldom surpassed, thus showing that his heart was callous to the most ordinary feelings of human nature.

Character of His Reign.

Such a character as Louis XI. in the station he occupied necessarily produced important results in France and on the general policy and social condition of Europe. His history was full of strange contrasts and anomalies. He realized his objects as a sovereign by unscrupulously sacrificing all his obligations as a man. Few kings have done more to extend the power and exalt the dignity of France, and few have left a personal portrait of darker or more odious coloring upon the pages of history.

His Oppression of His Subjects

Louis XI. commenced his reign by treating his subjects as if they were a conquered people. He deprived all officers appointed by his father of their situations, took a malicious delight in undoing all that his father had done, limited the provision made for his brother, oppressed his subjects with heavy taxes, plundered the nobles and insulted the clergy.

His Revocation of the Pragmatic Sanction.

He revoked the *Pragmatic Sanction*, the celebrated measure of his father's reign by which the liberties of the Church in France were guarded against the papal encroachments. This proceeding was promptly resented by the nobility and the clergy, and was a cause of trouble throughout this reign. Though anxious to oblige the Pope, Louis XI. first sided with him and then with his own subjects, accord-

ing to the requirements of his policy, and skillfully managed to avoid an open quarrel with either.

His Loan to King John II. of Aragon.

In 1462 King John II. of Aragon borrowed a considerable sum of money from Louis XI. for the prosecution of a war against the revolted Catalans, and placed the counties of Roussillon and Cerdagne in the French king's hands as security. Soon afterward Louis XI. increased his dominions by concluding a treaty with Duke Philip the Good of Burgundy by which he paid four hundred thousand crowns to redeem the towns of Abbeville, Amiens and St. Quentin, which his father had ceded to the Burgundian duke by the Treaty of Arras. Count Charles of Charolois—son of Philip the Good, and afterwards Duke Charles the Bold of Burgundy—who had hitherto been a devoted friend of Louis XI., now became that king's inveterate enemy, because he believed that Louis had committed an act of spoliation of his father in this transaction.

His Treaty with Duke Philip the Good of Burgundy, and Its Result.

League of the Public Good.

In the meantime the tyranny and wanton cruelty of Louis XI. had aroused a feeling of deep hostility toward him among all classes of his subjects. The Duke of Brittany and Count Charles of Charolois entered into an alliance against the king, who had sought to incite a war between them for his own purposes; and in 1464 this alliance was joined by the disaffected French nobles, the chief of whom were the Dukes of Lorraine, Nemours, Alençon, Bourbon and Berry. This coalition of French nobles assumed the name of the *League of the Public Good.* Civil war ensued.

Battle of Mont l'Hery.

Without waiting for his allies, Count Charles of Charolois advanced toward Paris; and Louis XI., eager to save his capital, hastened to reach it before his rival. The two armies encountered each other at Mont l'Hery, July 16, 1465. Both desired to avoid an engagement; but the Seneschal of Normandy, one of the leaguers, precipitated a battle, and was himself one of the first who was slain. The greater part of both armies fled from the field, and when night put an end to the conflict each army believed itself defeated. It was proposed in the Burgundian camp to take advantage of the night in order to make good their retreat, and they were very much surprised in the morning at finding themselves masters of the field. Says Philippe de Comines: "This unexpected victory was the source of all the calamities which the Count of Charolois afterwards experienced, for it inspired him with so much confidence in his own skill and prowess that he disregarded all advice."

Crafty Plan of Louis XI.

Though he failed to obtain the victory, Louis XI. made himself master of Paris, and gained the Parisians to his side by his promises and flattery. The unscrupulous king now began to practice the advice given him by Francisco Sforza, Duke of Milan, who had counseled the French monarch to promise the leaguers all that they demanded, to

foment dissensions among them after they had disbanded their troops, and then attack them in detail. This was just the plan that Louis XI. was calculated to execute.

His Dissimulation.

The crafty king accordingly made a truce with the leaguers, went into the hostile camp, and pretended to feel a wonderful revival of affection for Count Charles of Charolois. He made similar demonstrations of esteem to all the principal leaguers, and expressed the greatest desire to regain their friendship on any terms short of resigning his crown. The treaty was accelerated by an unexpected circumstance, which caused Louis XI. to consent to the article which he had thus far most persistently refused.

Disposition of Normandy.

The leaguers had insisted on the duchy of Normandy as an appanage for the king's brother; and Louis XI. had rejected the proposal, as he feared that the possession of so important a province might prove a step to the crown. But while this matter was still a subject of negotiation, the Normans, who were eager for provincial independence, everywhere opened the gates of their towns to the forces of the league. When tidings of this condition of affairs in Normandy reached King Louis XI., he determined to make a merit of granting what he was unable to withhold any longer, and immediately signed the Treaty of Conflans, A. D. 1465.

Treaty of Conflans

Apparent Concessions of Louis XI.

By this treaty Louis XI. relinquished the important line of the Somme to Duke Philip the Good of Burgundy; consented that the Duke of Berry should be made Duke of Normandy; ceded the counties of Etampes and Montfort to the Duke of Brittany; and raised the Count de St. Pol to the office of Constable of France. Each of the other members of the league reaped some advantage from the treaty. After the Treaty of Conflans had been signed, the League of the Public Good was dissolved.

Dissolution of the League of Public Good.

Duplicity of Louis XI.

Louis XI. resolved from the first not to execute these humiliating conditions. By the treaty he accomplished his purpose to gain time and divide the leaguers, after which he set to work to deprive them of their possessions and to humble them. The Parliament of Paris refused to ratify the grant of Normandy to the Duke of Berry, on the ground that the king had no right to alienate the possessions of the crown; and Louis XI. soon put an end to the duke's authority in that province.

Action of the Parliament of Paris.

The Dukes of Berry and Brittany.

Louis XI. then instigated a quarrel between the Dukes of Berry and Brittany, marched his forces toward Caen, and summoned the Duke of Brittany to appear before him. The Duke of Brittany, terrified and surprised, agreed at the conference to surrender to the king all the towns that his troops garrisoned in Lower Normandy. The rest of Normandy yielded to the king's threats and violence; and the Duke of

Occupation of Normandy by Louis XI.

Berry, destitute of friends, money, spirit or counsel, considered himself fortunate in escaping with his life to the court of the Duke of Brittany. Normandy enjoyed its qualified independence only two months; and Louis XI. put several of the Norman nobles to death without any of the formalities of justice, because of their desire to obtain that independence.

Revolts Instigated by Louis XI.

Seizure of Normandy by Louis XI.

Count Charles of Charolois was very indignant when he was informed of the king's proceedings in Normandy, but Louis XI. had provided sufficient employment for Charles by instigating the factious citizens of Liege and Ghent to revolt. After capturing Rouen without encountering any resistance, Louis XI. formally resumed the government of the duchy of Normandy in January, 1466.

Duke Charles the Bold of Burgundy.

His Severe Punishment of Revolted Ghent and Liege.

While Count Charles of Charolois was engaged in suppressing the insurrection in Liege and Ghent, his father, Duke Philip the Good of Burgundy, died, June, 1467; whereupon Charles came into possession of the rich inheritance of the duchy of Burgundy, and is known as Charles the Bold. The young Duke of Burgundy forced the citizens of Ghent and Liege to submit to very severe terms, and increased his treasury by exacting heavy pecuniary punishments from the insurgents; after which he prepared to turn his attention to France, where Louis XI. was rapidly recovering all that he had relinquished by the Treaty of Conflans.

The Dukes of Berry and Brittany Coerced by Louis XI.

In 1468 Louis XI. invaded Lower Normandy and Brittany with two powerful armies, and took several frontier towns, when he was informed that Duke Charles the Bold of Burgundy was rapidly advancing toward the Somme with a gallant army. Before the arrival of the Burgundian duke the king had forced the Dukes of Berry and Brittany to sign a treaty of peace with him, by which they consented to renounce their alliance with the Duke of Burgundy and to pledge themselves to aid the king against him.

Demand and Threat of Duke Charles the Bold of Burgundy.

Charles the Bold was at Peronne when he received tidings of this treaty, and was so surprised and enraged that he was with the greatest difficulty prevented from hanging the herald who brought him the news. He instantly demanded of Louis XI. the faithful execution of the Treaty of Conflans, threatening war in case of refusal. Instead of answering the Burgundian duke's threat by instantly marching against him, the king took a most extraordinary step to get rid of his vigorous rival, whose presence at the head of an army encouraged all the disaffected spirits in the French kingdom. Relying on his own superior address, and in opposition to the earnest entreaties of his most trusted counselors, Louis XI. yielded to the advice of Cardinal de Baluë, by adopting the extraordinary resolution of seeking a personal interview with Charles the Bold, hoping thus to divert the Bur-

Louis XI. Seeks an Interview with Charles the Bold.

gundian duke's attention to other objects, or to excite jealousy between him and his allies. A few days before starting to meet Charles the Bold, Louis XI. sent emissaries to instigate another rebellion in Liege against the Duke of Burgundy.

Louis XI. Visits Charles the Bold at Peronne.

After procuring a written safe-conduct from the Duke of Burgundy, the French king started for Peronne with a small escort in October, 1468. When he arrived at Peronne he was greatly alarmed at meeting in the camp of Charles the Bold several nobles who had fled from his dominions to escape his tyranny; and to escape their vengeance he requested the Duke of Burgundy to lodge him in the castle of Peronne. Charles the Bold granted the king's request and treated him with great courtesy.

Revolt in Liege Instigated by Louis XI.

Negotiations were then commenced between Louis XI. and Charles the Bold; but after these negotiations had continued several days news arrived that the people of Liege had broken out into another and fiercer rebellion and had murdered the Burgundian officers and several of the clergy, being instigated thereto by the emissaries whom the crafty French king had sent for that purpose before he started for Peronne. Upon hearing of this revolt the Duke of Burgundy burst into a furious rage, and ordered the gates of the castle of Peronne to be closed and guarded, thus making Louis XI. a close prisoner. In his rage Charles the Bold resolved to put his royal prisoner to death, and make the Duke of Berry, the captive king's younger brother, King of France in his stead.

Louis XI. Imprisoned by Charles the Bold.

Louis XI. Obtains His Release by Signing Humiliating Conditions.

Louis XI. was in dreadful suspense for three days; but, resorting to his accustomed arts, he bribed all those courtiers whom he supposed would likely have any influence over the Duke of Burgundy, among them Philippe de Comines, the historian, from whom is derived the account of this affair. At length, through the influence of Comines, Duke Charles the Bold was induced to release the captive king on the most humiliating conditions to Louis XI. The king bound himself by a solemn oath on a relic which he regarded with the most superstitious veneration to execute the Treaty of Conflans in good faith, and to grant the counties of Champagne and Brie to the Duke of Berry in place of the duchy of Normandy.

Louis XI. Aids Charles the Bold in Suppressing the Revolt in Liege.

Louis XI. was also obliged to accompany Charles the Bold to Liege to aid the Duke of Burgundy in reducing that rebellious city to submission. The king and the duke both vented their anger and disappointment upon the unfortunate city for the rebellion incited and assisted by the French king himself. Liege was taken by storm, and most of its inhabitants were massacred, while many of those who escaped perished from hunger and cold. Louis XI. was then released, whereupon he went to Tours to lay plans to avenge his humiliation.

Taunts of the Parisians.

The Parisians were much amused at the manner in which Louis XI. had been outwitted, and they taught their parrots to cry out "Peronne, Peronne." But the king revenged himself for their jest by ordering all the tame animals in the city kept for pets to be killed.

Louis XI. Renounces His Treaty with Charles the Bold.

No sooner had Louis XI. been released than he resolved not to submit to the terms exacted from him by Charles the Bold at Peronne as the condition of his release. He therefore refused to bestow the counties of Champagne and Brie upon his brother, the Duke of Berry, as the possession of those provinces would make that prince the neighbor as well as the ally of the Duke of Burgundy; and he determined to substitute the more distant duchy of Guienne, or Aquitaine, instead.

Merited Imprisonment of the Cardinal de Balue.

The king's plan was betrayed to Charles the Bold by Cardinal de Baluë. The cardinal's letters fell into the king's possession, and the cardinal was arrested and confined in an iron cage in the castle of Loches—a punishment which he richly deserved, as he was the original inventor of such a barbarous torture.

Louis XI. and the Duke of Berry.

Louis XI. then persuaded his brother, the Duke of Berry, to accept the duchy of Guienne, or Aquitaine; and that prince accordingly renounced his alliance with the Duke of Burgundy and offended him by refusing to marry his daughter and heiress Mary, A. D. 1469.

Louis XI. and Charles the Bold, and the Wars of the Roses.

Both the King of France and the Duke of Burgundy now took part in the Wars of the Roses in England, Louis XI. siding with the House of Lancaster, and Charles the Bold with the House of York. The French king's failure to restore Henry VI. to the English throne greatly encouraged the Burgundians and depressed Louis XI. to a corresponding degree.

Revolt in Guienne.

The people of Guienne and Gascony regretted the loss of their national independence, and intrigued with their new duke, the French king's brother, the Duke of Berry, to throw off the French yoke, A. D. 1472. The Duke of Guienne accordingly renewed his old alliance with Duke Charles the Bold of Burgundy, and the Duke of Brittany took up arms to aid them.

More Duplicity of Louis XI.

Louis XI. sought to avert the danger with which he was threatened by the league against him by offering the most humiliating concessions to the allies, and caused his brother's sudden death by poison; while a French army laid siege to Lectoure, which was defended by Count John d' Armagnac, who manifested the utmost activity in the old Gascon interest. The town was taken by storm and burned, and John d' Armagnac and the inhabitants of the town were massacred by the victorious French troops, while John's wife was forced to take a beverage which produced her death in two days, A. D. 1472.

Capture and Massacre of Lectoure by the French.

Undismayed by the loss of his most important ally, Duke Charles the Bold of Burgundy took the field against King Louis XI. in June,

1472, and took and barbarously sacked the town of Nesle, in the county of Picardy. The Burgundian duke was repulsed in his attempts to take Beauvais, near the end of July, and was forced to consent to a truce of five months, which was afterwards extended for more than two years.

Hostilities between Louis XI. and Charles the Bold.

Louis XI. took advantage of this truce to avenge himself on the feudal nobles who had refused to submit to his will. The Duke d' Alençon was deprived of his estates and imprisoned for life. Count James d' Armagnac, Duke of Nemours, was decapitated in Paris; and his children were placed under the scaffold, so that they might be sprinkled with their father's blood, and thus be warned never to make war against their suzerain, the King of France. The Duke of Lorraine died very suddenly, and was believed to have been poisoned by the French king's emissaries.

Louis XI. and the Dukes of Alencon, Nemours and Lorraine.

The impetuous Duke Charles the Bold of Burgundy frequently renewed the war with King Louis XI., and was bribed as frequently to grant fresh truces. The Constable St. Pol, who had seized some of the towns on the confines of Burgundy, encouraged the animosities of both parties, as their agreement would have proved his ruin. Equally distrusted by the king and by the Duke of Burgundy, the Constable acted with impartial treachery toward both, thus insuring his ultimate destruction, though he deferred it by his artifices for some time.

Louis XI., Charles the Bold and the Constable St. Pol.

In 1475 Duke Charles the Bold of Burgundy entered into an alliance with King Edward IV. of England and the Duke of Brittany, by which the English king agreed to revive the claims of his predecessors to the French crown. In the summer of that year Edward IV. landed at Calais with a splendid army of thirty thousand men; but the Duke of Burgundy, having lost half of his army in a foolish invasion of the territory of Cologne, was unable to furnish any aid to the King of England; and, as the other allies of Edward IV. proved lukewarm, that monarch's expedition failed. The Constable St. Pol had promised that he would surrender St. Quentin to the allies of the Duke of Burgundy, but when the English army appeared before the town it was fired upon and forced to retire.

Alliance of Charles the Bold with Edward IV. of England and the Duke of Brittany.

Invasion of France by Edward IV.

These circumstances afforded Edward IV. an honorable excuse for putting an end to the war, of which he was already weary, and the liberal offers of Louis XI. contributed largely to the same result. The crafty King of France literally bribed the English monarch and the principal English nobility, who remained disgraceful pensioners of the French sovereign for several years. The two kings had an interview at Pequigny, in which they soon arranged the terms of a treaty for seven years, by which Louis XI. agreed to pay the expenses incurred by Edward IV. in the war, and betrothed his son, the Dauphin

Edward IV. Bribed into Peace by Louis XI.

Charles, to the English king's eldest daughter, engaging to have the marriage performed as soon as the parties reached the proper age.

Truce between Louis XI. and Charles the Bold.

Charles the Bold of Burgundy was so incensed at the treaty between the two monarchs that he refused to be a party to it, but he afterwards concluded a truce with Louis XI. in order to enable him to continue his unjust war against the Swiss and the Duke of Lorraine. In accordance with the terms of the treaty between the Kings of France and England, the Constable St. Pol was to be surrendered to Louis XI. Seeing that his ruin was inevitable, the Constable fled to the court of the Duke of Burgundy, but Charles the Bold delivered him to the French king. The Constable's treason was so evident that he

Execution of the Constable St. Pol.

was promptly condemned by the Parliament of Paris, and was executed on the Place de Grève, December 10, 1475. This execution was the boldest blow which Louis XI. had thus far struck against the great feudal nobility of France. In addition to his vast possessions and his great personal influence, the Constable St. Pol was a member of the imperial family of Luxemburg, had married a sister of the queen of Louis XI., and was connected by marriage with several of the royal families of Europe.

Greatness of the Duchy of Burgundy.

Duke Charles the Bold of Burgundy had exacted a large price for his abandonment of the Constable St. Pol. This ambitious prince was already one of the wealthiest and most powerful sovereigns of Europe. His great-grandfather, Philip the Bold, who had been granted the duchy of Burgundy in fief by his father, King John the Good of France, in 1363, had also acquired by inheritance and marriage Franche-Comté, or the Free County of Burgundy, and also the counties of Flanders and Artois, with Mechlin, Antwerp and other towns. His son John the Fearless (1404–1419) and his grandson Philip the Good (1419–1467) extended their possessions still farther over the Netherlands, and built up a dominion that vied with Italy in civilization, industry and prosperity. Philip the Good was one of the richest

Its Civilization Industries, Wealth and Prosperity.

and most powerful princes of his time, and his Netherland chivalry were celebrated for their splendor, adroitness and polished manners. The wealthy manufacturing and commercial towns of Ghent, Bruges, Brussels, Antwerp, Louvain, Mechlin and others possessed great privileges and liberties, and a warlike militia. Charles the Bold—who, as we have seen, succeeded his father Philip the Good in 1467—enlarged his dominions and raised the splendor of his chivalrous court to the highest degree.

Ambition of Charles the Bold.

Charles the Bold was a man of vigor, courage and warlike spirit; but his ambition and his violent passions rendered him rash, obstinate and insolent. He sought to found a new Burgundian kingdom by making himself master of the entire region between the Rhine and the

Alps on the east and the territories of the French crown on the west, from the Mediterranean on the south to the North Sea on the north; but his efforts were frustrated by the crafty Louis XI.

Seizure of Lorraine by Charles the Bold.

In pursuance of his ambitious designs, Charles the Bold proceeded to take possession of the duchy of Lorraine, driving out the young Duke Réné. As the price of the deliverance of the Constable St. Pol into his hands by the Duke of Burgundy, Louis XI. permitted Charles the Bold to seize Lorraine without himself opposing it, but he instigated the Swiss to treat the Duke of Burgundy with such insolence that, after making himself master of Lorraine, Charles the Bold turned his arms against the brave mountaineers. The King of France was well convinced that an encounter with the hardy Swiss would ruin his powerful rival, and events justified his calculation.

His War with the Swiss.

Battle of Granson.

Charles the Bold led a stately and splendidly equipped army across the Jura against the Swiss; but he suffered so disastrous a defeat in the battle of Granson, March 2, 1476, that the survivors were dispersed in disorderly flight; and his admirable artillery and his magnificent camp filled with costly stuffs, with gold, silver and precious stones, came into the possession of the victorious Swiss, who did not know their value.

The Spoils.

Battle of Morat.

Maddened by the disgrace of this defeat, Charles the Bold led a new army against the Swiss a few months afterward; but the Swiss again defeated him in the battle of Morat, June, 1476, the flower of the Burgundian chivalry being left dead upon this fatal field, and the victors being again enriched with an immense booty. The Swiss canton of Berne wrested the Valais from the ducal house of Savoy, the ally of Burgundy; and the Duke of Lorraine recovered his lands from the vanquished Duke of Burgundy, reëntering his capital, Nancy, in triumph; while the subjects of Charles the Bold broke out into open disaffection and reproached him bitterly for his ambition and rashness.

Triumph of the Duke of Lorraine.

Battle of Nancy.

With the recklessness of despair, and meditating nothing but vengeance, Charles the Bold rejected every proposal of peace, and took the field against the Duke of Lorraine by invading that prince's territories and laying siege to Nancy. Duke Réné, by means of funds furnished to him by Louis XI., collected an army of twenty thousand Swiss, Alsacians and Lorrainers, and marched to the relief of his capital; and in a decisive battle in the frozen fields before Nancy, in January, 1477, Charles the Bold suffered a third disastrous and decisive defeat, and was slain in a frozen morass during his flight from the fatal field.

Death of Charles the Bold.

The Duke of Burgundy owed his defeat and death largely to the treachery of the Italian condottieri in his service, commanded by the

Treachery of His Italian Condottieri.

Count of Campobasso. This Italian officer had long been attached to the Duke of Lorraine, had sworn to compass the ruin of his master, Charles the Bold, and had almost openly bargained for the assassination of the Burgundian duke. With almost inconceivable credulity, Charles the Bold continued to trust him, though warned of his treachery; and when Louis XI. sent him word to beware of the treacherous Italian, the unfortunate Charles declared the letter to be the strongest evidence of Campobasso's fidelity, saying: "If evil were designed, Louis would be the last to send me warning."

Warning Letter of Louis XI.

Desertion of Charles the Bold by the Italian Condottieri.

Scarcely had the armies of the Dukes of Burgundy and Lorraine met on the fatal field of Nancy than Campobasso deserted with his condottieri, leaving fourteen desperadoes to assassinate Charles the Bold in the tumult. Dismayed by this unexpected defection, the Burgundians gave way at the first onset; and after the battle was over the dead body of Charles the Bold was found lying under a heap of slain, so disfigured with wounds as to be scarcely recognized. His generous foe, the young Duke of Lorraine, when shown the dead body, took hold of the right hand and uttered the simple words: "God rest thy soul! thou hast caused us much evil and sorrow." The Duke of Lorraine then ordered the body of the unfortunate Burgundian duke to be honorably interred.

Burial of His Body.

Seizure of Burgundy by Louis XI.

The death of Charles the Bold put an end to the Burgundian dominion. Louis XI. instantly seized the Burgundian territories, and, claiming the duchy of Burgundy as a lapsed fief, annexed it to the French crown, to which it remained united thereafter. Louis XI. proclaimed himself the guardian of Mary of Burgundy, the daughter of Charles the Bold, who was his kinswoman, and pledged himself to watch faithfully over her interests.

Mary of Burgundy.

Revolt in Ghent against Mary of Burgundy Instigated by Louis XI.

Mary offered to unite her dominions to those of the King of France by a marriage with the Dauphin, but Louis XI. was base enough to betray Mary's letters to the factious citizens of Ghent, thus inciting a revolt of the Flemings against the princess. The revolted citizens condemned two of Mary's most faithful servants to death as traitors; and, in spite of her entreaties, the enraged mob caused the condemned servants to be executed in the market-place of Ghent, and the princess returned to her palace sad and disconsolate.

Marriage of Mary of Burgundy with Maximilian of Austria.

Mary, after vainly appealing to the French king to carry out his promises to her in good faith, and with the full approval of her subjects, married the Archduke Maximilian of Austria, afterwards the Emperor Maximilian I. The marriage was solemnized August 18, 1477, much to the chagrin of Louis XI., who had hoped to marry the Dauphin Charles to the Burgundian princess, or, at least, to defraud her of her inheritance.

Results of This Marriage.

The marriage of Mary of Burgundy with Maximilian of Austria laid the foundation of the future greatness of the Austrian House of Hapsburg, and was the source of the jealous enmity between that dynasty and France, which produced so many wars in Europe during the next two centuries. Louis XI. vented his rage on the Duke of Nemours, who had been a member of the League of the Public Good, and had been jealously watched by the French king ever after. The Duke of Nemours had been arrested in August, 1476; and after a cruel imprisonment of a year he was executed in August, 1477.

Arrest and Execution of the Duke of Nemours.

Treacherous Intrigues of Louis XI. against Maximilian of Austria.

After the death of Mary of Burgundy, in 1482, by a fall from her horse while hawking, the people of Ghent chose her infant son and daughter, Philip and Margaret, for their sovereigns, and placed them under the guardianship of their father Maximilian. Louis XI. renewed his treacherous intrigues for the purpose of instigating a rebellion in the towns of the Netherlands against Maximilian. Ghent renounced Maximilian's authority; the guilds of Bruges kept him a prisoner for some time; the duchy of Brabant wavered; but, nevertheless, Maximilian, by his courage and conduct, induced the whole of the Netherlands to recognize his guardianship of his infant children.

Terms of the Treaty of Arras.

Louis XI. kept the duchy of Burgundy and the county of Picardy. Margaret, the daughter of Mary and Maximilian, was affianced to the Dauphin Charles, and was sent to France to be educated. It was agreed that she should receive as a dowry Franche-Comté, or the Free County of Burgundy, and the counties of Artois, Macon and Auxerre, which, in the event of the failure of issue of the marriage, or the nonperformance of the marriage, were to revert to her brother Philip, the son of Mary and Maximilian. Louis XI. renounced his claims to French Flanders, and agreed never again to encourage revolt among the Flemings. Such were the conditions of the Treaty of Arras.

Relations with England

We have already alluded to the Treaty of Pequigny, by which the Dauphin Charles was betrothed to the Princess Elizabeth, the daughter of King Edward IV. of England. The English king was enraged at the insult to him conveyed by the Treaty of Arras, and prepared to invade France; but his sudden death in April, 1483, relieved Louis XI. of all danger.

Vast Increase of Territories of Louis XI.

Louis XI. was now at the height of his power, and vastly enlarged his dominions by means generally more or less dishonorable. In addition to the territories wrested from the house of Burgundy at the death of Charles the Bold, Louis XI. about this time came into possession of the duchy of Anjou by the bequest of Réné, the last duke of that province; and a year afterward he obtained the counties of Maine and Provence by the same bequest. The duchy of Guienne and the counties of Alençon and Perche were annexed to the possessions of the

The French Nobles Awed into Submission.

French crown by less honorable means. The counties of Roussillon and Cerdagne also became the property of the French crown, having been pawned by King Ferdinand the Catholic of Spain. The duchy of Brittany was the only great feudal fief of France that yet remained independent of the French crown. The boldness with which Louis XI. had struck at the French nobles had awed them into submission, and his acknowledged diplomatic skill and success had made him one of the most influential and powerful monarchs of Europe.

Louis XI. Stricken with Apoplexy.

In the midst of his prosperity, Louis XI. was stricken with apoplexy while sitting at dinner one day in March, 1480, which at once deprived him of his sense and speech. Though he partially recovered from this attack, his health was never fully restored. He perceptibly declined day after day, and he dreaded death more and more as the fatal day came nearer. Everything appeared to inspire him with jealous fear. He removed his queen from the court, and kept his son a close prisoner in the castle of Amboise. He always retained in his suite Louis, Duke of Orleans, the first prince of the blood royal, whom he had barbarously deprived of the advantages of education. He compelled this prince to marry the princess Jane, who possessed an amiable disposition, but with whom he had no issue.

His Jealous Fear.

His Treatment of Louis, Duke of Orleans.

His Dread and Suspicions.

Conscious, as he had himself told his son, "that he had grievously oppressed his people," Louis XI. lived in constant dread of their revenge. He therefore shut himself up in the strong castle of Plessis les Tours, which he fortified by digging ditches and placing iron spikes in them. As he did not dare to trust his own subjects, he was guarded night and day by a band of Scottish archers, who had orders to shoot any person who approached the castle without first making himself known. The gates of the castle were never opened, but such persons as were allowed to enter were admitted through a small gate called the *wicket-gate*, through which only one person could pass at a time. The cruel tyrant's dread of the nobles was so great that the princes of his own family, even his own daughters, were forbidden to visit him without invitation. The avenues to this miserable abode were lined with gibbets instead of trees.

His Last Gloomy Solitude.

The Wicket-gate.

His Three Companions.

Pretended Astrological Prediction.

The three companions of his solitude were his barber, Oliver Daim; his hangman, Tristan l' Hermite, and his physician, Jacques Coctiers. The cruel tyrant was a miserable slave to the last of these intimate associates, who was an artful quack and pretended that an astrologer had predicted that according to the decrees of fate the physician himself should die four days before the king. The wretched monarch therefore watched over the life of the unscrupulous physician with the utmost care, loaded him with presents, and submitted to all his insolence.

His Anxiety, Imbecility and Cares.

Fearing that his subjects might deprive him of his government because of his increasing imbecility, the tyrant made a great show of attention to business, and pretended to read all the documents committed to his secretaries, though he could not see a single word. In order that he might be promptly informed of what was transpiring in all parts of his kingdom, he established regular posts. Though these were employed in the king's service, citizens were permitted to ride post horses on payment of a certain sum. In order to persuade mankind that his health was perfectly restored, the unhappy king sent embassies to foreign princes, wore the most elegant robes instead of the plain and shabby dress that he had hitherto worn, and sacrificed additional victims to his suspicious cruelty and undying revenge.

His Establishment of Posts.

His Pretensions and Cruelties.

His Amusements and Pastimes.

Rat Hunting and Peasant Diversions.

The miserable king sought to divert his thoughts by amusements. As hunting had been his favorite diversion when he was in health, he caused many rats to be caught and turned loose in his chamber, where he hunted them with cats. But as he soon became tired of this pastime, his attendants devised a more innocent diversion; collecting the peasants, dividing them into bands and distributing them in the meadows about the castle, where some played on the pipes, while others danced and sung. To conceal the ravages of disease, the wretched king, now dressed with splendor, looked at the peasants from the windows of the castle; but when he perceived that any one observed him he instantly retired, and did not again appear that day.

His Last Miserable Days.

His Relics and Images.

The nearer death approached the more he dreaded it, and he sought to prolong his life by all the arts of superstition. He kept various relics about his person, and little leaden images were stuck around in his cap. He constantly addressed his prayers to these images, and caused holy oil to be brought from Rheims and kept it on his table. The Pope sent the unhappy king various articles of assistance from Rome; and even the Sultan of the Ottoman Turks sent a deputation of holy relics from Constantinople. The wretched monarch feared to accept these last, as they came from un-Christian hands. His chief hope was in the prayers of Francis de Paule, a pious hermit of Calabria, whom he had brought to his castle, and before whom he frequently fell on his knees, begging him to prolong his life; but the honest hermit announced to the despairing monarch that his case was hopeless, and recommended him to prepare for another world.

Prayers of Francis de Paule of Calabria.

Advice of Louis XI. to His Son

Thus deprived of his last hope, and finding himself to be growing weaker day by day, Louis XI. sent for his son, and exhorted him not to govern without the aid and advice of the princes and nobles, not to change the great officers of state at his accession, not to continue the oppressive taxes, and to make his administration as unlike his father's as possible. The chief anxiety of Louis XI. was to die on Saturday,

Death of Louis XI.

which he considered the most fortunate day; and this wish was gratified, as he died Saturday, August 30, 1483, in the sixty-first year of his age and the twenty-second of his reign.

His Cruel Executions.

Few sovereigns have been more execrated than Louis XI. More than four thousand persons were executed for state offenses during his reign, and he took a fiendish delight in witnessing their torments. He,

His Other Doings.

however, diligently attended to the administration of justice, and made several judicious regulations in the law courts; and although he oppressed his subjects very much he never permitted others to do so. He was the first to establish posts in France, to gratify the restless desire for news; and the first printing-press was made in Paris during his reign.

Charles VIII., the Courteous, A. D. 1483–1498.

Upon the death of Louis XI., in 1483, his son, CHARLES VIII., surnamed *the Courteous*, a boy of thirteen years and in feeble health, became King of France. That age was the legal age of majority; but the weakness of his constitution, and the ignorance in which he had been reared, rendered him unfit to take the government in his own

Regency of His Sister, Anne of Beaujeu.

hands. Louis XI. had by his will appointed his daughter, Anne of Beaujeu, guardian to her brother, the young king. This princess was a woman of excellent understanding, high spirit and vigorous resolution, possessing much of her father's craft, without any of his cruelty and perfidy.

The States-General and the Regent, Anne of Beaujeu.

The princes of the blood royal, particularly the Dukes of Bourbon and Orleans, considered it beneath their dignity to submit to the control of a woman, declaring that as the Salic Law excluded females from the French crown it also rendered them incapable of exercising the regal functions; and the States-General was summoned to decide on this important question. Contrary to the expectation of the princes of the blood royal, the States-General confirmed the will of Louis XI. and acknowledged Anne of Beaujeu as regent, but ap-

Rebellion of the Dukes of Bourbon and Orleans Suppressed.

pointed a council of twelve of the principal nobles to assist her in the administration. Thereupon the Dukes of Bourbon and Orleans appealed to arms, but the promptitude of the regent disconcerted their plans. The Duke of Bourbon was forced to submit to whatever terms Anne was pleased to dictate, while the Duke of Orleans was obliged to seek refuge in Brittany. By the death of the Duke of Bourbon soon afterward, the regent Anne of Beaujeu became Duchess of Bourbon; that prince having been her husband's elder brother.

Occupation of Brittany by French Troops.

Though the inhabitants of the duchy of Brittany had always manifested a strong love of independence and had shown themselves unwilling to become incorporated with either the duchy of Normandy or the Kingdom of France, the discontent of a large part of the Bretons induced them to solicit the assistance of the King of France against

their duke, but they discovered when too late that a powerful ally soon becomes a master. King Charles VIII. sent them an army far exceeding the number of troops that had been stipulated for. He garrisoned the towns of Brittany with French troops, and claimed the duchy in right of the ruling family of Blois, the former rivals of the Montforts, the house of Blois having bequeathed their pretensions to the French king.

Battle of St. Aubin.

The Bretons discovered their error when too late, submitted to their duke and joined him with all their forces; but they were totally defeated by the French army at St. Aubin, July 28, 1488, their bravest leaders being either killed or taken prisoners, and the whole of Brittany being thus placed at the mercy of the victorious invaders. The Duke of Orleans and the Prince of Orange were among the prisoners taken by the triumphant French. The regent Anne of Beaujeu imprisoned the Duke of Orleans, but released the Prince of Orange.

Death of the Duke of Brittany.

The Duke of Brittany was thus obliged to make peace on very disadvantageous terms, and grief hastened his death, which occurred in September, 1488. He left two daughters, one of whom soon followed her father to the grave. The surviving daughter, Anne, the heiress of Brittany, was only a child of thirteen, but conducted herself with great wisdom under all the difficulties of her situation. Her subjects were divided into several parties concerning her marriage.

His Daughter Anne.

Designs of Charles the Courteous on Brittany.

The regent Anne of Beaujeu resolved to seize the opportunity of annexing the duchy of Brittany to the territories of the French crown, and induced her brother, King Charles VIII., to demand that Anne of Brittany should not assume her title of duchess until the question of succession had been judicially decided between herself and the King of France, and that she should submit herself to his guardianship. As Anne of Brittany rejected these demands, a French army invaded the duchy and took Brest and other important towns.

Alliance of England, Germany and Spain with Brittany.

The French invasion of Brittany alarmed England, Germany and Spain, as those nations were extremely jealous of the rapid growth of the French power; and they formed an alliance to preserve the independence of Brittany. In the spring of 1489 an English and Spanish army landed in Brittany, but no decisive action occurred. The English soon retired; and in the summer of 1490 the young Duchess of Brittany was persuaded to contract a marriage by proxy with the Archduke Maximilian of Austria, the widower of the Duchess Mary of Burgundy, and afterwards Emperor Maximilian I. Anne of Brittany then assumed the title of Queen of the Romans, but to her disappointment she obtained no aid from Maximilian, who was then engaged in a war with Hungary. In the meantime the duchy of Brittany was reduced to great suffering.

Anne of Brittany and Maximilian of Austria.

Charles VIII., Anne of Beaujeu and the Count of Dunois.

In 1490 King Charles VIII., then twenty years of age, assumed the government of France. He immediately released the Duke of Orleans, to whom he was tenderly attached, and effected a reconciliation between that prince and his sister, the regent, Anne of Beaujeu, Duchess of Bourbon. By this consummation the Count of Dunois, who had been the chief counselor of the Duchess Anne of Brittany, was won over to the king's side.

Marriage of Charles the Courteous with Anne of Brittany.

The Count of Dunois had advised the marriage of Anne of Brittany with the Archduke Maximilian of Austria; but, as that prince never assisted her against the power of France, the Count of Dunois induced her to end her trouble by marrying the King of France. Reduced to utter despair and deserted by Maximilian, she consented to this arrangement. The Duke of Orleans contrived an interview between King Charles VIII. and Anne of Brittany at Rennes. The king and the duchess were well pleased with each other; and their marriage was solemnized at the chateau of Langeais, in the province of Touraine, in December, 1491. Thus the duchy of Brittany became fully united with the crown of France; and, in order to make this union permanent, it was stipulated in the marriage contract that if Charles VIII. should die without issue the queen should marry his successor, or if he were married she should marry the next heir of the French crown.

Annexation of Brittany.

Disadvantages of This Marriage to Maximilian of Austria.

The marriage of Charles VIII. with Anne of Brittany was a double insult to Maximilian of Austria, as it deprived him of his bride and his daughter Anne of a husband, that princess having been betrothed to Charles VIII. in her childhood. The counties of Artois, Charolois, and Franche-Comté, or the Free County of Burgundy, which had been ceded by Maximilian as his daughter's dowry, were restored to him. The Archduke of Austria was unable to avenge the insult thus offered him, because of his war with Hungary and troubles in Flanders, which kept him thoroughly occupied. He submitted with as good grace as possible, and when the Burgundian territories just named were restored to him he made peace with France by the Treaty of Senlis, in May, 1493.

Peace with England and Spain.

Peace was soon afterward concluded between France and England by the payment of a large sum of money to King Henry VII. of England as indemnity for his expenses in the war in Brittany. Peace was also made between France and Spain; the French king ceding to King Ferdinand the Catholic of Spain the counties of Roussillon and Cerdagne, which King John II. of Aragon had pawned to Louis XI. of France; but the money for which they had been pawned was not returned to the King of France.

France was now at the highest pitch of power; and King Charles the Courteous resolved upon enforcing some claims which he had upon

Wars of Charles the Courteous in Italy.

the Kingdom of Naples, and for this purpose he invaded Italy with eighteen thousand men; and, after receiving the submission of many Italian cities, he entered Rome and Naples in triumph. But when the King of France considered his Italian conquests secure, a powerful coalition was formed against him by the Italian princes, the Emperor Maximilian I. of Germany, and Ferdinand and Isabella of Spain. The allies attempted to cut off Charles's retreat to France, but he defeated their united forces in the battle of Fornovo, and reached his kingdom in safety; but all his conquests in Italy were lost to him. The whole Kingdom of Naples was soon recovered from the French by the able Spanish general, Gonsalvo de Cordova, "the Great Captain." The events of these Italian wars of Charles the Courteous will be more fully narrated in another volume of this work, as they are very important in the general history of Europe.

Battle of Fornovo.

Salutary Reforms of Charles the Courteous.

In 1497 Charles the Courteous sent another expedition into Italy to retrieve his fallen fortunes, but soon concluded a truce with his enemies, and his troops returned. He had ruined his health by debauchery, but he now suddenly surprised and gratified his friends by dismissing the companions of his guilty pleasures and forsaking his evil habits. He then applied himself diligently to public affairs and introduced many salutary reforms in the government, thus seeming to live only for the good of his subjects. He dismissed all unjust judges and unworthy persons from their offices. He showed a determination to effect a reform in the manners of the clergy, whose extreme ignorance and vices had made them contemptible in the eyes of the people, when his life was suddenly cut short.

Sudden Death of Charles the Courteous.

Charles the Courteous was suddenly attacked with apoplexy at his splendid new palace at Amboise, April 17, 1498, falling senseless to the ground as he said to one of his attendants that he hoped he should never commit another sinful act, and dying soon afterward on a wretched bed to which he had been carried, in the twenty-eighth year of his age and the fifteenth of his reign.

His Good and Bad Traits.

Charles VIII. was a sovereign with a good natural disposition. His kindness of manner and his amiable qualities endeared him to all who knew him, and it is said that he never uttered an expression which could wound the feelings of any human being. His courtesy and affability acquired for him the surname of *the Courteous*. Two of his servants are said to have died of sorrow for his death; and his widow, Anne of Brittany, was almost crazy with grief. But his father's barbarous policy in depriving him of the advantages of education and confining him in the company of menials produced the worst effects on his character, giving him a taste for sensual pleasures, because he knew no other, and causing that mixture of obstinacy and

indecision in his character so commonly perceptible in persons of vigorous minds and little information.

Louis XII., "the Father of His People," A. D. 1498–1515.

On the death of Charles the Courteous, in 1498, without children, his third cousin, the Duke of Orleans, ascended the throne of France with the title of Louis XII., and was the only King of France belonging to the Orleans-Valois branch of the dynasty of the Capets. He was anointed at Rheims, May 27, 1498, and was crowned at St. Denis, July 1, 1498. He was the grandson of the Duke of Orleans who had been assassinated by Duke Philip the Good of Burgundy in 1407, and was the great-grandson of King Charles the Wise. He was in the prime of life at the time of his accession. The calamities which he had suffered in the early part of his life produced a beneficial effect upon his character. Louis XII. was one of the best kings that ever wore a crown. He was so solicitous for the welfare of his subjects, and was so beloved by them in return, that he was called "*the Father of his People.*"

His Good Character.

His Prime Minister, George d' Amboise.

Immediately on his accession, Louis XII. rewarded the zeal and fidelity of George d' Amboise, Archbishop of Rouen, by appointing him prime minister; and never did a favorite better deserve the confidence of his master. During his entire administration this minister caused the sciences and trade to flourish. He was a munificent patron of literature, and his general conduct caused him to be as much beloved as his sovereign. He labored zealously to effect a reformation among the clergy, and promoted this reformation by his own example; as he would hold but one benefice at a time, and devoted two-thirds of the revenue of that benefice to the relief of the poor and the repair of churches.

His Forgiving Spirit toward His Former Rivals and Foes.

The first care of Louis XII. was to lessen the taxes and to improve the administration of justice. Being importuned to remove from the command of the army a brave old general, De la Trimouille, who had taken him prisoner at the battle of St. Aubin, Louis XII. magnanimously replied: "It does not become the King of France to revenge the injuries of the Duke of Orleans." His niece and former rival, Anne of Beaujeu, Duchess of Bourbon, was distinguished by special marks of favor and regard; and those who had taken part against him in his struggle with that princess during the minority of Charles VIII. were assured that they need have no fear of losing their positions.

His Divorce, and His Marriage with Anne of Brittany, Widow of Charles VIII.

Anne of Brittany, the widow of Charles VIII., had retired to Nantes soon after the death of her husband, and had resumed the government of the duchy of Brittany, living like an independent sovereign. Louis XII. was already married to a wife whom Louis XI. had forced him to espouse, and who was a princess of blameless reputation and great merit, though deformed in person. In order to carry out the treaty

for the union of the duchy of Brittany with the French crown, it was necessary for Louis XII. to divorce his wife and marry Anne of Brittany, as he had no children. Pope Alexander VI. granted a dispensation for this purpose; receiving in return for his share in the transaction the title of Duke of Valentenois, in Dauphiny, and a handsome pension for his son, Cæsar Borgia. Louis XII. then married Anne of Brittany. The queen retained the administration of the duchy of Brittany; and it was stipulated that if there should be no children by this marriage Brittany should revert to the descendants of its ancient dukes, and that if two sons were born to Louis XII. and Anne the second son should be Duke of Brittany.

Anne's Good Character.

Anne was quite remarkable for the propriety of her conduct and for her simple manners. Her court was a model of decorum. She was always surrounded by a numerous train of young ladies, whom she employed in embroidering and other work suitable to their rank. She herself would sit at work in the midst of these ladies. She was a very excellent woman, and was one of the best of the Queens of France. Her heart is still preserved in the Royal Library of Paris, inclosed in a gold case.

Wars of Louis XII. in Italy.

In 1499 King Louis XII. sent an army into Italy to enforce his hereditary claims upon Milan. The French conquered Milan and Genoa, and Louis XII. and King Ferdinand the Catholic of Spain wrested Naples from its king, Frederick; but a quarrel arose between the robbers, and the Spanish king forced the French monarch to yield his claim upon Naples. In 1508 Pope Julius II., the Emperor Maximilian I. of Germany, King Ferdinand the Catholic of Spain and King Louis XII. of France formed the powerful League of Cambray against the Republic of Venice; but the Pope and Louis soon quarreled and open war ensued, and the Venetians secured the alliance of the Pope and the King of Spain. The French defeated the combined forces of their enemies in the great battle of Ravenna, on the 11th of April, 1512. In the following year (1513) King Henry VIII. of England invaded France and won the *Battle of the Spurs*, near Tournay.

League of Cambray.

Battles of Ravenna and the Spurs.

Death of Queen Anne.

Anne of Brittany, the wife of Louis XII., died in 1514. The king was sincerely attached to her, and was deeply afflicted by her death. Louis XII. now concluded peace with all his enemies but the Swiss, who refused to treat with him. By the terms of the treaty Louis XII. paid a large indemnity to England and married the Princess Mary, the sister of King Henry VIII., August 7, 1514. Louis XII. died a few months after this marriage, January 1, 1515, and was deeply mourned by his subjects. As his only children were two daughters, his heir was his cousin, Count Francis d' Angoulême. On his death-

Marriage of Louis XII. with Mary, Sister of Henry VIII. of England.

Death of Louis XII.

bed Louis XII. sent for this prince, and, embracing him, said: "I am dying; I commend my subjects to your care."

Veneration for His Memory.

The French people justly venerated the memory of Louis XII., because he diminished the old taxes one-half and never imposed any new ones, notwithstanding his long wars and many reverses. He vindicated his economy by frequently saying: "I had rather see the courtiers laugh at my avarice than my people weep on account of my expenses."

Philippe de Comines, the Historian.

During this period flourished the celebrated French historian Philippe de Comines, who was born in 1447, and whose *Memoirs* present a vivid and reliable account of the court of Louis XI. and of the chief events and general character of the age in which he lived. This great mediæval French historian died in 1511.

CHAPTER XXVII.

FEUDAL ENGLAND.

SECTION I.—ENGLAND UNDER THE NORMAN DYNASTY (A. D. 1066–1154).

William the Conqueror, A. D. 1066–1087.

His Coronation.

As we have seen, the battle of Senlac, or Hastings, made WILLIAM THE CONQUEROR King of England, and he was the first of the four Norman kings who ruled that kingdom. At his coronation in Westminster Abbey on Christmas Day, A. D. 1066, both English and Norman nobles were present, and good order prevailed inside the building. The question asked these nobles was: "Will you have William, Duke of Normandy, for your king?" Both parties answered "Yes," with loud acclamations. But the Norman soldiers outside, imagining that the noise signified violence against their duke, attacked the multitude who had assembled about the doors from innocent curiosity, and even set fire to houses in the vicinity. King William the Conqueror, after receiving his English crown from the Archbishop of Canterbury, succeeded in quieting the tumult; but only after a sense of personal wrong had thus been added to the deep national despair of the vanquished English.

His Justice and Impartiality.

William the Conqueror loved justice, and endeavored to reconcile his Anglo-Saxon subjects to his rule by enforcing the laws impartially on rich and poor, both English and Norman-French alike. He sought to learn English, for the purpose of better understanding and governing his new subjects. He placed his Norman countrymen in all civil and military commands, and divided among them the estates of those English soldiers who had fallen at Stamford Bridge and Senlac, but he first left all other proprietors in possession of their lands. He erected strong castles to overawe London, Winchester and other English cities; but he was careful to confirm all the commercial and other privileges which those cities had enjoyed. By thus covering the hand of steel with the glove of velvet, the Norman Conqueror of England so far silenced opposition that he considered it safe to revisit his duchy of Normandy, taking many English earls with him to swell his royal train

and display the wealth of the conquered kingdom, while they served as hostages for the good behavior of their Anglo-Saxon countrymen.

Race Animosity.

King William's absence from England was a disaster to the kingdom, as his officers were neither so just nor so wise as their master; and their violence and avarice excited animosity between the Normans and the Anglo-Saxons, which was not appeased for several centuries. About half of England yet remained unconquered. The men of the Danelagh scorned submission to the Norman Conqueror, and offered their homage to Sweyn II., King of Denmark, who entered the Humber with a large fleet and army in A. D. 1069 and besieged and took York, massacring the Norman garrison of three thousand men.

Danish Invasion.

Saxon and Danish Rebellion.

Great numbers of the English, who had hitherto smothered their discontent, now felt encouraged to cast off the Norman yoke, and the kingdom was everywhere ready for revolt. But William the Conqueror now acted with exceeding and effectual severity. After bribing the Danish invaders to return to Denmark, he turned upon the armed rebels of the Danelagh with a tiger-like ferocity; ravaging the sea-board so that no Dane should find either foothold or plunder thereafter, and laying waste with fire and sword the old fertile region of Deira, between the Humber and the Tees, the heart of the rebellion. The devastation was so complete that for the space of sixty miles north of York the entire region remained for half a century without a human being, a barren waste, and marked only by blackened ruins. One hundred thousand people, who had fled from their homes to the woods when William appeared, died of starvation after returning to the ashes of their homes.

Devastation of the Danelagh.

Rebellion Suppressed.

This cruel work was performed in midwinter, but the hard-hearted king at once started for the West of England, where the revolt was still formidable; the starving army toiling painfully on its way, with the tireless king at its head, through an unbroken wilderness, covered with snow drifts and crossed by swollen streams; and with the fall of Chester the rebellion was virtually ended.

Fate of the Rebels.

Many of the vanquished Danes and Saxons took to the woods as robbers and outlaws. Others proceeded to Constantinople and enlisted in the guards of the Eastern Emperor. Many of the fugitive Danish and Saxon nobles were hospitably received by Malcolm Canmore, King of Scotland; among them being Edgar the Atheling and his two sisters, one of whom married the Scottish king.

Confiscation of Rebel Estates.

The vindictive Norman King of England then began a wholesale confiscation of the estates of the vanquished rebels. These confiscated lands were divided among the Norman knights and nobles who had fought under King William's standard, while the former Anglo-Saxon and Danish owners of the lands either found refuge in foreign countries or organized in hostile bands and waged a desultory warfare with

their Norman conquerors. Hereward, a Saxon noble, retired to the isle of Ely, where, protected by almost impenetrable marshes, he bade defiance to the Norman power for a long time. But William built a causeway across the swamps and finally forced the valiant Saxon chief to surrender.

Hereward's Defiance.

After the Saxon rebellion had been suppressed William the Conqueror put Normans into all high places in Church and State; and Lanfranc, an Italian monk, whose piety and learning had already wrought a great reformation in the Norman monasteries, was now created Archbishop of Canterbury. Necessarily, all the business of the government and of the courts of justice, the services of the Church, except such as regularly employed Latin, and the exercises of the schools, were conducted in the Norman-French language. Thus Norman-French came largely into use, even among English people; but the English masses still continued to talk in their Anglo-Saxon tongue.

Lanfranc, Archbishop of Canterbury.

Norman-French Language.

The Norman Conquest of England was now complete, and William the Conqueror turned his attention to the organization of the government, with a view to its future security. For this purpose he put Normans into all places of power and trust; and the military power of the government was based on the Feudal System, which had already prevailed in Continental Europe for several centuries, and which the Norman Conqueror introduced into England as a bulwark to his throne. Under this system the great Norman lords were granted well-nigh absolute power over the persons and property of their English tenants, on certain conditions, the most important of which was that they should come to the king's support with all their vassals whenever he should call them to arms. These nobles, or barons, usually living in strongly fortified castles, and constantly surrounded by devoted bodies of vassals, thus became petty sovereigns, passing their time in hunting, or in making war on each other, and sometimes on the king himself. Although the Feudal System was a bulwark to the Norman Conqueror's throne against the vanquished English, that system became the chief danger to the throne when the spirit of disaffection infected the Norman nobility, who had been made powerful and independent.

Introduction of the Feudal System into England.

The completeness of William's confiscation of the English lands is seen in the fact that he was enabled to grant vast estates to his more powerful Norman followers; his half-brother Odo, Bishop of Bayeux, receiving two hundred manors in Kent, with as many in other parts of England; and grants almost as large being conferred on the king's ministers, Fitz-Osbern and Montgomery, and on such barons as the Mowbrays, the Warrens and the Clares; while the poorest Norman soldier of fortune had a part in the spoil, and the humblest Norman rose to wealth and power in his illustrious duke's new dominion.

Rewards of William's Norman Favorites.

The Saxon Chief Waltheof.

The last Englishman who retained any power or importance was Waltheof, son of the famous Siward, Earl of Northumberland. After being received into the Norman Conqueror's favor, Waltheof married Lady Judith, William's niece, and was presented with three rich earldoms. The high-spirited Norman barons, who always resented the imperious temper of their duke, had become still more restive after he had been elevated to a royal dignity; and at a wedding party, when the wine was flowing freely, an actual revolt was proposed. The Saxon Waltheof assented to the proposal of the Norman lords, but with his cooler judgment the next morning he revealed the plot to his wife. As Judith hated her husband, she availed herself of this means to accomplish his ruin.

His Sad End.

King William was then in his duchy of Normandy, where he received a latter from Lady Judith informing him of the conspiracy and exaggerating Waltheof's guilt. Waltheof himself hastened to Normandy to detail the entire affair to William. But the king's mind was influenced against the Saxon chief; and, contrary to his usual justice, he nursed his wrath until a day of retribution. Before William's return to England his officers quelled the revolt, with the assistance of the English themselves; but the punishment of the rebels was reserved for the king himself, and he executed it with unusual severity. Some of the offenders were blinded, and others were immured in dungeons; but Waltheof, the least guilty, suffered the heaviest penalty, being condemned and beheaded as a traitor. His faithless wife gained nothing by her treachery; as she soon fell under the king's displeasure, passing the rest of her life in shame and remorse, and being universally detested.

Rebellion of William's Son Robert.

Thousands visited Waltheof's tomb as a martyr's shrine. The English believed that the Conqueror's good fortune deserted him on the day of Waltheof's execution. Peace departed from him; and "his bow was broken, his sword blunted." William's last years were visited by the heaviest sorrows. His eldest son, Robert, a turbulent and misgoverned youth, desired to become Duke of Normandy even during his father's life-time, and was joined by a party of turbulent young courtiers in a rebellion against his father. King Philip I. of France, who was always jealous of the Duke of Normandy, gave Robert a castle on the Norman frontier for his headquarters, whence he and his wild companions sallied forth to ravage Normandy.

Combat of Father and Son.

William besieged the castle, and in a fight beneath its walls father and son met in deadly combat, both being concealed by their helmets. William was wounded, and his cry for help first made known to his rebellious son that the latter was about to slay his own father. Robert was instantly stricken with remorse and terror, and fell on his knees,

imploring his father's pardon. Peace was restored for a time, through the intervention of the barons, and particularly of Matilda, William's worthy wife and Robert's mother. Robert then made his first visit to England, and was given the command of an expedition into Scotland. **Robert's Submission.**

The Scots and the Welsh were pacified; but King William had to encounter a nearer enemy in his half-brother Odo, Bishop of Bayeux, to whom he had intrusted the government of England during his absence in Normandy. Odo desired to be a king, but his ambition soon aspired to a higher dignity. He used his royal brother's treasures to buy votes in Rome, and bribed the same brother's soldiers to enter his service, for the purpose of transporting an army to Italy and making himself Pope by force in the place of Gregory VII., Hildebrand, whose persistent aggressiveness had antagonized most ruling princes. The king returned from Normandy just in time to check his ambitious half-brother's bold enterprise. William arrested Odo with his own hands, and sent him to Normandy, where he was imprisoned in the castle of Rouen. William's good queen Matilda died soon afterward, worn out with cares and sorrows, and the Conqueror seldom smiled thereafter. **Ambition of Odo, Bishop of Bayeux.** **His Imprisonment.**

The Conqueror's wife Matilda was the daughter of the Earl of Flanders, through whom the present royal family of England traces its descent from Egbert, the first king of all England. The famous *Bayeux Tapestry*—so called from being kept at Bayeux, in Normandy—was the handiwork of Matilda; and was a piece of canvas sixty-eight yards long and nineteen inches wide, on which scenes and figures giving a complete pictorial history of the Norman Conquest of England were embroidered in wool. **The Bayeux Tapestry.**

William had many enemies. King Canute IV. of Denmark prepared an immense fleet, being secretly encouraged by people in the North-east of England, and hoping to recover his grandfather's island kingdom. This Danish fleet was "glued to the coast" by head-winds, which the superstitious believed to have been raised by the spells of weird women; but the magic in the case was no other than that which was wrought by English gold, with which King William's emissaries bribed the Danish leaders. **Great Danish Invasion.**

For the better organization of his kingdom, and for the more certain collection of its revenues, William the Conqueror ordered a general survey of the estates of the English realm—the most celebrated act of his reign. Commissioners were appointed in all the cities and towns of England, except London and the four northern counties—Northumberland, Cumberland, Westmoreland and Durham—to make an exact registration of all estates and capital. The reports of these commissioners were arranged and copied on vellum into the two great volumes of the *Domesday Book*, which is still preserved in the Tower of Lon- **Domesday Book.**

don, and in which Englishmen may yet see the landed possessions of their ancestors eight centuries ago accurately described. From this famous register the crown dues were carefully calculated and rigidly collected. Domesday Book and Windsor Castle are the most celebrated of the works of William the Conqueror yet remaining.

The Curfew Bell

William the Conqueror established the curfew bell, which was rung from every church-tower and monastery in England, at sunset in summer, and at eight o'clock in the evening in winter, as a signal for the people to cover the fires on the hearth and to retire to rest. The law of the curfew was designed as a safeguard against conflagrations, and had prevailed for a long time in different parts of Europe, where fires were frequent and extensive in the wood-built towns.

The New Forest.

Among the worst acts of William the Conqueror was his conversion of large tracts of land into hunting grounds. He formed the *New Forest*, in Hampshire, by laying waste an extensive tract reaching from Winchester to the English Channel, burning sixty villages and driving the inhabitants from their homes. "He loved the tall deer as if he were their father," according to an old rhyme; and the killing of the king's game called forth a severer punishment than the murder of a man.

Wager of Battle.

William the Conqueror introduced a mode of trial called *Wager of Battle*, or *Single Combat;* by which an accused person was permitted to challenge his accuser to mortal combat, and if he came out of the struggle victorious he was pronounced innocent, otherwise he was declared guilty.

The Conqueror's Good Measures.

The Norman Conqueror abolished the slave trade, which had long been a source of wealth to the merchants of Bristol; and he formally abolished capital punishment, only one person suffering death for crime during his entire reign. He likewise became a friend and patron of the Jews, who were then a despised and persecuted people, and permitted them to erect dwellings and synagogues in all the principal towns of England.

His Bold Defiance of Hildebrand.

William the Conqueror was a true Roman Catholic, and strengthened the Church by establishing ecclesiastical courts, which proved the source of so much trouble in the reign of Henry II.; but he bluntly refused obedience to the Pope's command to do homage for his realm. When Pope Gregory VII., Hildebrand, called on William to do fealty for his realm the Conqueror rejected the demand in this vigorous style: "Fealty I have never willed to do, nor do I will to do it now. I have never promised it, nor do I find that my predecessors did it to yours." No papal letters could be received in his kingdom without his permission. He required the Norman bishops and abbots, whom he had appointed to the places of their English predecessors, to lead the most

exemplary lives, and he instantly dismissed those whom he found unworthy.

Poem.

"Great King William stood on Windsor,
Looking, from its castled height,
O'er his widespread realm of England
Glittering in the morning light;
Looking on the tranquil river
And the forest waving free;
And he sighed, 'Oh! land of beauty,
Fondled by the circling sea,
Mine thou art, but I would yield thee
And be happy, could I gain,
In exchange, a peasant's garden,
And a conscience free from stain!'"

The Norman Conqueror's Unfortunate End.

William the Conqueror met with a characteristic end, losing his life on an errand of vengeance in 1087, after reigning over England twenty-one years. He had become corpulent during the latter years of his life; and once, while suffering from illness, he had been made the subject of a silly jest by King Philip I. of France. William felt so deeply mortified by this treatment that after recovering he laid waste the French king's lands bordering on the duchy of Normandy, and burned the town of Mantes. While riding through the burning town his horse reared among the hot embers that filled the road and stumbled upon a burning brand, and the Conqueror of England received mortal injuries from the pommel of his saddle from which he died at Rouen several weeks afterward. Just before his death he divided his dominions among his three sons; bequeathing the duchy of Normandy to his eldest son Robert, the Kingdom of England to his second son William Rufus, and a large treasure to his youngest son Henry.

Unbecoming Conduct of His Sons and Servants.

After receiving the announcement of their inheritance William Rufus and Henry hastened to secure it, leaving their dying father in the care of hirelings. As soon as the king had drawn his last breath his attendants rushed to horse, eager to secure their own interests under the new reign. The lowest servants stole every article which they could find, and fled, leaving their dead master on the floor unattended. The obsequies of the Conqueror were attended to by a poor knight named Herlouin, who as sole mourner attended the dead king's remains to Caen, to be interred in a magnificent abbey which William had erected in that important city of Normandy.

Herlouin.

Disturbance of the Conqueror's Funeral Obsequies.

Peace was denied the unhappy Conqueror even in death. Caen was at that very moment a prey to a conflagration, which destroyed a large part of the city and dispersed the funeral procession, leaving only a few monks about the corpse. Just when the words "Ashes to ashes, dust to dust" were about to be chanted, a voice rang through the abbey forbidding the burial of the body, because the ground where the grave

was dug had been unjustly taken from its rightful owner, the complainant's father. The funeral rites were suspended while witnesses were examined and money was counted out to pay for the ground; after which the mortal remains of William the Conqueror, Duke of Normandy and King of England, were laid at rest.

Character of William the Conqueror.

There was a grandeur about the Norman Conqueror that was not characteristic of any other King of England. This was alike manifest in his fearless humanity and in his dauntless ferocity. He was reserved, haughty, severe in his rule, ruthless in his revenge, "stark to baron or rebel," but "mild to them that loved God"; thus inspiring a mingled sense of respect and awe in all about him—a sense doubtless heightened by a consciousness of his great physical strength, as no ordinary man was able to swing his battle-ax or bend his bow. With a ferocity having few parallels in all history, he blotted out rebellious towns, and brought a death-like silence on offending districts; while, with a humanity in remarkable contrast with the spirit of the age in which he lived, he formally abolished capital punishment. He could brook no opposition, and was like a raging lion to all who withstood him, except to Anselm, the good Abbot of Bec, in whose presence he was always gentle and patient.

William Rufus, A. D. 1087–1100.

William Rufus—whose surname signified "the Red," because of his ruddy complexion—who became King of England upon his father's death, in 1087, seized the royal treasures and several fortresses, upon his arrival in England, before making known his father's death. Archbishop Lanfranc then hastened to crown him before any opposition could be offered; and that ceremony was performed September 26, 1087, seventeen days after his father's death. His uncle, Odo, Bishop of Bayeux, headed a party which attempted to crown the new king's elder brother, Duke Robert of Normandy, King of England; but William Rufus made such fine promises to the English that they heartily rallied to his cause, thus enabling him to crush the rebellion raised in Robert's interest.

Bishop Odo and Duke Robert of Normandy.

Oppressive Misrule of William Rufus.

The English soon had reason to regret their loyalty to the cause of William Rufus, as he forgot all his promises of good laws as soon as all danger to his throne was past; and, instead of the light taxes that they had been promised, they were required to bear the heaviest burdens to supply the king's extravagant wants. Wherever the king and court went they did as much damage as an invading army; as the king's followers lived at free quarters on the country people, and frequently plundered and sold the property of their hosts, also washing their horses' legs with the liquor that they did not drink. Thus William Rufus was a selfish tyrant, not deterred by law or religion from using his great talents entirely in the pursuit of pleasure and power.

His Character.

William Rufus was his father's equal in personal courage, violence of temper and strength of will; but he was the Conqueror's inferior in all the higher moral qualities. He was coarse and profane in speech, mean and covetous in disposition, and prodigal and licentious in his habits. He kept his ministers busy contriving means to extort new taxes from his subjects.

Lanfranc's Death and Character.

Archbishop Lanfranc's death, in A. D. 1089, was a cause of intense sorrow to the English. Though an Italian, and thus a foreigner to both Normandy and England, he was the friend, advocate and protector of the common people—a noble office which became inseparable from the duties of Primate of the Church in England.

William Rufus's Exactions from the Church.

William Rufus hated the Church for the same reason that a robber hates the judge—because it was the only power which could rebuke and measurably restrain his evil passions. A law of the realm bestowed on the crown the revenues of vacant bishoprics and abbeys. He refused to fill such vacancies as long as possible, so that he might appropriate their incomes to himself, or sold them to the most unworthy persons; and when the vacant sees were filled he burdened them with enormous taxes. By these means he robbed the Church of its rights and the people of their religious privileges. The money which the king thus obtained was used for the gratification of his desire for debasing pleasures, and for the enrichment of his worthless courtiers.

William Rufus and Archbishop Anselm.

For some years after Lanfranc's death William Rufus kept for his own use the great revenues of the archbishopric of Canterbury, but finally a severe illness awakened his conscience, whereupon he appointed the good Abbot Anselm to the office of Archbishop of Canterbury. When William Rufus recovered his health he resumed his old crimes, but he found Anselm to be a firm and able antagonist. After a long and angry contest between the king and the Primate, Anselm retired from England and took refuge with the Pope.

Wars of William Rufus with His Brothers.

William Rufus and his brothers Robert and Henry spent several years in wars with each other for the possession of their father's entire dominions. Many of the Norman barons had estates in both England and Normandy, and found it impossible to serve two masters who were so at variance as were William Rufus and Robert. William Rufus failed in an attempt to wrest Normandy from Robert in 1090, after which these two brothers became reconciled and turned their arms against their younger brother Henry, whom they vanquished.

Scottish Invasion of England

William Rufus was recalled from Normandy by an invasion of England by Malcolm Canmore, King of Scotland, who was induced to make peace and to do homage to the King of England for his crown. Malcolm Canmore again invaded England in 1093, but was defeated and slain in a battle at Alnwick Castle in the same year. As a precaution

Carlisle Rebuilt.

against such Scottish inroads, William Rufus rebuilt Carlisle, which had been in ruins for a long time, erected a strong castle at that frontier town, and peopled it with colonists from the South of England.

Normandy Mortgaged to William Rufus by Duke Robert.

A few years later William Rufus obtained the duchy of Normandy from his brother Robert in an unexpected manner. It was at this time that Christendom sprang to arms and engaged in the First Crusade to wrest Palestine from the hands of the Seljuk Turks, who had conquered the Holy Land and ill-treated the Christian pilgrims to the Holy Sepulcher on Mount Calvary. Duke Robert of Normandy was one of the leaders of the First Crusade. To obtain the necessary funds, he mortgaged his entire duchy of Normandy to his brother, King William Rufus, for ten thousand marks. William Rufus raised this sum by extorting the money from all classes of his subjects, even forcing the churches to melt their gold and silver plate to furnish their share. With this sum Duke Robert joined the army of the Crusaders, and William Rufus took complete possession of the mortgaged duchy of Normandy.

King's Forests.

Under William Rufus one-third of all the lands in England were *King's Forests*, in which the king's will was the only law—an adequate reason why they were the favorite resorts of the godless king and his reckless followers. William Rufus met with a tragic death, in the year A. D. 1100, while hunting in the New Forest, which his father had made in Hampshire; being pierced to the brain by an arrow from one of the hunting party, whether by design or accident was uncertain. Walter Tyrrel, one of the hunting party, was suspected of discharging the fatal arrow, but he always denied it, though he fled from the kingdom. The dead king's body was conveyed by a poor charcoal-burner in his cart to Winchester, where it was buried without religious rites. William Rufus was the third of his family who suffered violent deaths in the New Forest; and the poor people whose homes had been destroyed for this cruel pastime considered his fate a proof of the just retribution from Heaven for the Conqueror's heartless cruelty. William Rufus was never married. He built two historical edifices in London—the Tower and Westminster Hall.

Accidental Death of William Rufus.

Henry I., A. D. 1100–1135.

Henry I., the brother and successor of William Rufus and the youngest son of William the Conqueror, was also hunting in the New Forest when he heard of his brother's death. He instantly put spurs to his horse and hastened to secure the royal treasury at Winchester; after which he galloped off to London, was saluted as King of England by the bishops and barons, and was crowned in Westminster Abbey three days after the death of William Rufus; thus usurping the English crown by forestalling his elder brother Robert, who was loitering on his way home from the Holy Land.

His Usurpation of the English Crown.

His Charter of Liberties.

As Henry I. was at first opposed by the barons, who espoused his absent brother Robert's cause, he followed the example of his dead brother William Rufus by falling back on the support of the English. He soon conciliated all parties by granting a *Charter of Liberties*, in which he solemnly swore to observe the laws of Edward the Confessor; renounced the right to plunder the Church by allowing its sees and abbeys to remain vacant; promised not to sell or lease the vacant benefices of the Church; and bound himself to exempt his vassals, the Norman barons, from certain exactions and restrictions, on condition that the barons granted the same relief to their own vassals, the English people. He removed the evil companions of his brother William Rufus from the positions to which they had been appointed by that king, and recalled Anselm to the archbishopric of Canterbury.

His Learning.

Henry I. had been born and educated in England and spoke its language well, while also being a great favorite with the English people. His writs and charters were issued in English, instead of Latin. His learning, unusual in that age, acquired for him the surname of *Beauclerc*, the "Fine Scholar." He pleased the English people most and gained the support of the Scots by marrying Edith, the daughter of Malcolm Canmore, King of Scotland, and a great-granddaughter of Edmund Ironside; thus uniting the Saxon and Norman dynasties, and restoring in the descendants of this princess the ancient line of Cerdic and Odin. Upon her marriage with Henry I., Edith took the Norman name of Matilda, or Maud.

His Scottish Marriage.

His Beneficent Actions.

The character of Henry I. was a strange combination of virtues and vices. He was unscrupulous, false-hearted and revengeful; but he promoted the welfare and happiness of his subjects, encouraged manufactures, improved the coinage, established a system of weights and measures, repealed the odious law of the curfew, and reorganized the courts of justice. The system of justice established by Henry I. is the system now existing in England and the United States, with modifications and improvements. When he endowed the great towns of England with charters of freedom he struck a heavy blow at the Feudal System in his kingdom and gave a great impulse to liberty.

Civil War between Henry I. and Robert.

Upon returning from the Holy Land, Robert took undisputed possession of the duchy of Normandy, his old inheritance, which he had mortgaged to William Rufus; after which he proceeded with his army of Crusaders to enforce his claims to the English crown. But the unbounded enthusiasm of the English people at the marriage of King Henry I. with an English princess could not be overcome; and when Robert landed in England, and raised his standard as the rightful heir to the English crown, he found himself opposed by sixty thousand resolute English yeomanry. The two brothers pitched their camps in

Robert's renunciation.

sight of each other, but both dreaded to begin the unbrotherly strife; and, after several days had thus passed, a treaty was made between them, through the exertions of Archbishop Anselm and others, Robert renouncing his claims to the English crown for a pension of three thousand marks a year for himself, while his followers were pardoned.

Renewal of the Civil War.

No sooner had Robert returned to his duchy of Normandy, and the Norman barons in England dispersed to their castles, than Henry I. began to confiscate the estates of all the barons implicated in the rebellion in Robert's interest. Indignant at his royal brother's treachery, the chivalrous Robert instantly summoned his vassals to renew the war.

Robert's Defeat and Lifelong Captivity.

Claiming that Robert had thus broken the treaty, and finding that the barons of Normandy were dissatisfied with their duke, Henry I. crossed the Channel and invaded Normandy with a large army in 1106, defeated Robert's army and took Robert himself prisoner, received the homage of all Robert's vassals and thus took possession of Normandy, and then returned to England with his captive brother Robert, who was doomed to life-long captivity in Cardiff Castle, in Wales.

Robert's Blindness and Death.

It is said that Robert having once attempted to escape, Henry I. caused his captive brother's eyes to be put out with a hot iron; so that this noblest of the sons of William the Conqueror lingered twenty-nine years in sightless captivity, finally dying in his dungeon a blind old man of eighty years, A. D. 1135, the very year of the death of King Henry I.

Quarrel of Henry I. with Archbishop Anselm.

In the meantime a quarrel ensued between King Henry I. and Archbishop Anselm, in consequence of the king's claim that the bishops and abbots should be nominated by the crown and be its vassals. Anselm defended the Pope's right to make such nominations without kingly interference. Henry I. was finally obliged to yield some of his pretensions, and the Pope's power in England was thus greatly strengthened.

Flemish Colonists in Wales.

Henry I. settled a colony of Flemings in Wales, in the district of Ross, in Pembrokeshire. These Flemish colonists engaged in the tilling of the soil and the manufacture of cloth. They increased rapidly in numbers and in prosperity, and held their own against the Welsh princes who sought to expel them.

Remorse and Crimes of Henry I.

Henry's cruel treatment of his brother preyed unceasingly on his mind, and thenceforth he did not have a moment's happiness. He vainly endeavored to stifle his remorse by founding monasteries and erecting churches. Though suffering under the burden of one crime, he was meditating the commission of another, that of murdering his nephew William, Robert's son, a boy of ten years, whose rightful claims to the duchy of Normandy kept his royal uncle in continual dread and prevented him from enjoying what he had acquired so unjustly; but

Henry I. failed in his attempts to get possession of the young prince, who took refuge with King Louis VI. of France.

War with France.

The French king's attacks on Normandy, in the name of the young refugee Norman prince, kept King Henry I. in continual disquiet. The armies of the Kings of England and France encountered each other at Brenneville, near Rouen, the capital of Normandy, in which the English were victorious, and which was the first battle between the English and the French. As each party desired to take prisoners for ransom rather than take life, only three knights were slain out of the many engaged in the battle.

Battle of Brenneville.

Henry's Domestic Sorrows.

King Henry I. reaped much sorrow and little joy from his ambitious and unjust schemes, and his last years were rendered sad and gloomy by the death of his good queen Matilda in 1118, and also by the melancholy death of his only son, Prince William, by shipwreck in 1120.

The White Ship and Prince William's Death.

The king and his son had been on a visit to Normandy to secure the acknowledgment of the young prince as heir to all his father's dominions and to complete a marriage contract with the daughter of the Count of Anjou. After both matters had been arranged satisfactorily, they embarked in different ships to return to England. Some accident delayed the *White Ship*, in which Prince William had taken passage. The prince had ordered some wine to be given to the crew, and the sailors drank so freely that many of them became intoxicated. When the vessel got to sea the drunken pilot ran it upon a rock and all but one on board perished. When Henry I. was informed of the terrible catastrophe he fainted away, and is said to have never smiled again.

Henry's Daughter Matilda and Geoffrey Plantagenet.

The only surviving child of King Henry I. was Matilda, wife of the German Emperor Henry V. For want of a son, Henry I. resolved to bequeath his dominions to his daughter, although neither Normans nor Saxons had ever tried the hazardous experiment of putting the crown on a woman's head. After the death of her imperial husband, Matilda was married to Geoffrey Plantagenet, Count of Anjou, on which occasion all the barons of both Normandy and England did homage to her as their liege-lady. The nobles repeated their oaths of fealty after the birth of Henry Plantagenet, Matilda's son with her second husband; and two years later, A. D. 1135, King Henry I. died, bequeathing all his dominions to Matilda.

Henry Plantagenet.

Matilda and Stephen of Blois.

Before Matilda could return to England to take the crown that was her lawful right, it was usurped by Count Stephen of Blois, nephew of Henry I. and grandson of William the Conqueror by his daughter Adela, Countess of Blois. Stephen, who was affable in his manners and familiar in his address, had made himself a general favorite with the citizens of London, thus paving his way to the throne.

Stephen's Usurpation.

Stephen of Blois and his brother Henry had been invited to England by King Henry I., who had conferred honors and estates upon them. In return, Stephen and his brother professed great gratitude and affection for Henry I., and expressed their desire for the accession of his daughter to the English throne; but as soon as Henry I. had died Count Stephen hastened to London, and by misrepresentations induced the Archbishop of Canterbury to crown and anoint him King of England. The religious rite of kingly consecration was highly reverenced, and a bull which Stephen obtained from the Pope confirming his title increased the respect in which it was held. Normandy followed England's example by acknowledging STEPHEN, who thus became King of England and Duke of Normandy, A. D. 1135.

Stephen, A. D. 1135–1154.

Civil War of Stephen with Matilda.

The usurper did not have quiet possession of his throne, as Matilda appealed to arms to enforce her rights, thus involving England in civil war. Her uncle, King David I. of Scotland, invaded the North of England to enforce his niece's right to the English crown. With an army of wild and lawless Highlanders, the Scottish king inflicted havoc on both the supporters and the enemies of Matilda. The Archbishop of York took the field against this army of marauding Scots, and utterly routed them in the great *Battle of the Standard*, at North Allerton, in Yorkshire, A. D. 1138, driving them across the border.

Scottish Invasion.

Battle of the Standard.

Matilda in England.

Matilda herself came to England the next year with a small body of troops to claim her kingdom, and was joined by many barons who had become restive under Stephen's iron rule. Matilda's chief supporter was her half-brother, Robert, Earl of Gloucester; while Stephen's brother, Henry, Bishop of Winchester, the papel legate in England, likewise espoused her cause for a time, being offended in a violent quarrel between his brother and the clergy. Stephen was defeated and taken prisoner in a battle at Lincoln in 1141, and was sent in chains to Gloucester Castle.

Stephen's Defeat and Captivity.

Matilda's Temporary Triumph.

MATILDA then entered London, and was solemnly acknowledged Queen of England by an assembly of the clergy. Her authority seemed about to be established over the entire kingdom; but her haughty manners and her violent temper, so much in contrast with Stephen's generous and good-natured ways, soon changed her friends into foes and cost her the crown. She peremptorily rejected the three conditions proposed by her supporters—the restoration of the laws of Edward the Confessor; the confirmation of Stephen's son Eustace in his father's inherited estates; and Stephen's release from captivity, on his promise to renounce all pretensions to the English crown and to enter a monastery.

Her Haughty Rejections.

Renewal of the Civil War.

The Pope's legate in England, offended by Matilda's rejection of his advice, took up arms against the haughty queen; and her brother

and chief defender, Earl Robert of Gloucester, was soon afterward made prisoner in battle. Matilda was obliged to exchange the captive king for her captive brother, and the flames of civil war raged more fiercely than ever for some years. The rapid approach of Stephen's heroic wife with an army, and the ringing of the alarm bells of London, caused a general uprising of the people, thus compelling Matilda to flee in haste from the city, and she found refuge inside the walls of Oxford Castle.

Matilda's Flight from London.

Stephen, again at liberty and at the head of his army, speedily surrounded Matilda's place of refuge, disposing his troops in such a manner as apparently to cut off every avenue of escape. The garrison in the castle ran short of provisions; and Matilda, with three devoted knights, clad herself in white to resemble the snow that then covered the ground, passed silently through the lines of Stephen's army in the night, crossed the frozen Thames, and took refuge among her loyal subjects in the West of England, whence she retired to Normandy four years afterward. About the same time her brother, Earl Robert of Gloucester, died.

Her Escape to Normandy.

The situation changed as Henry Plantagenet, Matilda's son, grew to manhood. That prince had spent some years in Scotland, whence he made raids into England; and by his military talents he revived the confidence of his party. When he was seventeen years old he was made Duke of Normandy, with the suzerainty of Brittany, by his mother's consent; and upon his father's death, soon afterward, he became Count of Anjou and Maine. By his marriage with the great heiress, Eleanor of Aquitaine, a few weeks after her divorce from her first husband, King Louis VII. of France, he came into possession of the large duchy of Aquitaine and the counties of Poitou and Touraine. Thus Henry Plantagenet was lord of the whole western half of the Kingdom of France, his territories in that country being far more extensive than those of the French king himself.

Henry Plantagenet's Vast Possessions in France.

Henry Plantagenet's promotion in rank and wealth induced the barons of England to invite him thither, and in 1153 he crossed the Channel with an army collected from his French provinces, thus renewing the civil war with Stephen. But the bishops of England, under the lead of Theobald, Archbishop of Canterbury, weary of the strife that had been the cause of such calamity to the kingdom, brought about a treaty at Winchester, A. D. 1153. Stephen and Henry Plantagenet spoke with each other from opposite sides of the Thames, and agreed that Stephen should remain King of England during his life and that Henry should be his successor. It was also agreed that the grants of crown-lands which Stephen had made should be canceled, that the new castles should be demolished, and that the foreign troops should be dis-

His Civil War with King Stephen.

Treaty of Winchester.

Stephen's Death.

missed. Henry Plantagenet then returned to France, and peacefully ascended the English throne upon Stephen's death the next year, A. D. 1154.

Defection of Stephen's Nobles.

Stephen was influenced to this treaty by the death of his eldest son and by the defection of his leading nobles, some of whom had turned against him, while more of them had abandoned the struggle and retired to their estates. This showed the practical workings of the Feudal System.

Robber Barons.

To gain the support of the barons, Stephen had permitted them to erect new castles on their estates at the commencement of his reign, and had also granted new titles of nobility to his chosen adherents. Thus one hundred and twenty-six castles were erected, many of which were of great strength and built on inaccessible heights. Secure in these strongholds, the barons lived like petty princes, defying the king's authority and renewing old family quarrels. They plundered the country in the vicinity of their estates, and taxed their tenants to the point of starvation. Even the churches were despoiled of their wealth. The wealthy were waylaid as they journeyed, and were held or tortured for ransom. These nobles acquired the title of *Robber Barons.*

Forest Outlaws.

Following the example of the Robber Barons, criminals and outcasts, idle soldiers and starving peasants, in all parts of England, took to the woods and became outlaws, thus making it perilous to travel in some districts without the protection of an armed escort. Banded together, sometimes in large numbers, these outlaws of the forest set the laws and the authorities at defiance, or retreated to their hiding places in the dense recesses of the forest, where they were safe from pursuit. Many of these bandits were rude and ruthless men, and spared neither age nor sex; while others were generous and courteous, and robbed the rich for the purpose of relieving the wants of the poor.

Anarchy.

It is almost impossible to describe the anarchy and misery which afflicted England during Stephen's reign. Towns were deserted; farms were neglected; the sanctuaries were filled with helpless, starving people; and thousands fled in terror from the country.

SECTION II.—EARLY PLANTAGENETS, MAGNA CHARTA AND PARLIAMENT (A. D. 1154–1272).

Henry II., A. D. 1154–1189.

Henry II., or Henry Plantagenet, Duke of Normandy, Brittany, Aquitaine and Gascony, and Count of Anjou, Maine, Poitou and Touraine, who became King of England upon Stephen's death in 1154, was the first of the renowned dynasty of the Plantagenets, who occupied the English throne for three hundred and thirty-one years (A. D. 1154–

1485). As Duke of Aquitaine he was, besides being suzerain of Gascony, feudal lord of the counties of Saintonge, Angoumois, La Marche, Perigord, Quercy, Agenois, Bearn, Auvergne, the seigniory of Bourbonnois, and the viscounty of Limousin. Being feudal lord of all the western provinces of France, from the English Channel on the north to the Pyrenees on the south, he possessed far more extensive territories in France than his suzerain, King Louis VII. of France; and when he became King of England he was a greater monarch than his lord-paramount, and was one of the most renowned and powerful sovereigns of Europe.

His Vast Territories in France.

The reign of Henry II. was one of the most important in English history, and was contemporary throughout with that of Frederick Barbarossa in Germany. Henry II. was a man of hard, practical sense, of great firmness and energy, and had been carefully educated. He delighted in the society of learned men, and was a man of broad, liberal views in many respects.

His Reign and Character.

No king ever ascended the English throne under more peculiar circumstances—circumstances in some respects more appalling—than greeted the first of the illustrious French family of the Plantagenets on his accession to the sovereignty of this island kingdom. During Stephen's wretched reign the whole structure of society had fallen to pieces, regard for law and respect for religion having been swept away in the general wreck. The spirit of lawlessness, which commenced with the nobility, had permeated the priesthood and the peasantry. When priest and noble turned robber, it is not surprising that the helpless peasant either became an outlaw, or deserted home and harvest-field, and fled in consternation beyond the sea. The best elements of society had become demoralized for the time being. Though only twenty-one years old when he became King of England, Henry II. undertook the task of reconstruction with a courage and an intelligence that challenge admiration. His efforts were principally directed to the restoration of order and the correction of the abuses of the Church.

England's Wretched Condition at His Accession.

One after another of the Robber Barons was subdued, and their castles were razed to the ground; while the outlaws of the forest were mercilessly hunted down. The crown-lands were also reclaimed, and the foreign soldiers were expelled. The king issued two sweeping edicts, in order to increase the royal power and to weaken the baronage still more. One of these edicts, issued in 1159, substituted the payment of money, called *shield money*, for the personal services of the barons in time of war; thus enabling the king to keep a paid standing military force. The other edict, issued in 1181, restored the militia; making every freeman a soldier, always to be properly armed, and subject to the king's call in time of national danger.

Suppression of Lawlessness.

Henry II. and the Church.

The struggle of Henry II. with the Church was more difficult and more dangerous than that with the barons. Under the Saxon and Danish Kings of England the judges and the bishops sat together on the civil benches; but William the Conqueror had established separate courts for ecclesiastical cases, over which the bishops alone presided. Criminals among the clergy were thus put beyond the jurisdiction of the civil authorities, and by a canon of the Church the priesthood could not impose the death penalty upon one of their own order, so that these priestly criminals were likewise exempt from extreme punishment. Under such a condition of things, it is no wonder that the Church had become arrogant and independent, or that during the first few years of the reign of Henry II. one hundred murders were committed by priests, some of whom were punished merely by some trifling penance or degradation in office, while the others suffered no punishment whatever.

Thomas à Becket, Archbishop of Canterbury.

The struggle between church and state which now convulsed England was far more violent than the contest between King Edwy and St. Dunstan or the controversies which William Rufus and Henry I. had with Archbishop Anselm. Thomas à Becket, the son of a London merchant, was the first Englishman since Waltheof who had risen to great power in England. He had improved many fine talents by studying law at Bologna, in Italy; and after his return to his native land King Henry II. lavished offices, revenues and honors upon him. He was created Lord Chancellor, and was followed by an army of knights. Great nobles, and even the king, often accepted his hospitality and sought his aid in the education of their sons. Henry II. finally appointed Becket to the dignity of Archbishop of Canterbury, thinking he was securing a useful instrument for his struggle with the Church, but in this expectation he was sadly disappointed.

Change in His Character.

Becket's character appeared to experience a sudden and complete change from the time that he became Primate of the Church in England. The man who had before been the king's bosom friend and companion—the man whom Henry II. had raised from poverty to affluence, from the position of tutor to his children to the highest ecclesiastical dignity in England—now withdrew from court, and immediately abandoned his former pomp and adopted habits of austerity and asceticism. Instead of the costly banquets in which he had formerly indulged, he now subsisted on a scanty fare of bread and water. He tore his flesh with the scourge, and daily washed the feet of thirteen beggars in imitation of his Master's humility. All this was practically to declare hostility to his king.

His Quarrel with Henry II.

Becket at once made himself the uncompromising champion of the Pope's supremacy in England, and this action on his part was highly

resented by King Henry II. The chief point of controversy was the claim of the Church to judge all crimes committed by persons in her employ, independently of the civil courts. Soon after Becket's consecration as Archbishop of Canterbury a clerk committed a disgraceful crime and sought to conceal it by murder. The king ordered that the offender be given up to justice. Archbishop Becket kept him in the bishop's prison, and insisted that he could be punished only by removal from his office.

Constitutions of Clarendon.

At the summons of King Henry II., a great council of nobles and bishops convened at the castle of Clarendon in January, 1164. With the consent of this assembly, an important charter called the *Constitutions of Clarendon* was given to the English people. This charter provided that the civil courts should have a certain jurisdiction over the ecclesiastical tribunals, and that even priestly criminals, when convicted by the Church courts, should be stripped of their orders and turned over to the civil authorities for punishment.

Renewal of the Quarrel and Becket's Exile in France.

After violent resistance, Archbishop Becket swore to support the Constitutions of Clarendon; but when Pope Alexander III. published a bull annulling this charter the English Primate expressed great sorrow and contrition for his former submission, and sought to unite all the English bishops in a league against King Henry II. The king turned upon the archbishop with such fury that Becket fled from the kingdom. King Louis VII. of France, who had many causes of jealousy against the King of England, gladly received the refugee Primate with all the honors due to a saint and a martyr; and Becket remained an exile in France for six years (A. D. 1164–1170).

Becket and the Archbishop of York.

In 1170, while Becket was still absent from England, Henry II. caused his eldest son Henry to be crowned as associate monarch by the Archbishop of York. Becket obtained a sentence from Pope Alexander III. declaring that the Archbishop of Canterbury alone had the right to crown any English sovereign, deposing the Archbishop of York and excommunicating all the bishops of England who had taken any part in this ceremony of coronation. As King Henry II. was then in Normandy, Becket returned to England and was received with shouts of welcome by the clergy and by the common people, both of whom regarded the Primate as their champion against royal tyranny. Becket came back as haughty and determined as ever, and immediately caused it to be published that he brought with him the sentence of excommunication pronounced by the Pope against the Archbishop of York and two other bishops who had taken part in the coronation of Prince Henry, "the Younger King."

Becket's Return to England.

Anger of Henry II.

When King Henry II. was informed of Becket's haughty conduct, and of his triumphal entry into Rochester and Southwark, he was over-

come by a fit of anger, during which he exclaimed: "What cowards have I brought up in my court! Is there none of my servants who will rid me of this pestilent priest?" Four knights in attendance on the king in Normandy—Reginald Fitz-Urse, William de Traci, Hugh de Moreville and Richard Brito—took the angry king at his word, proceeded to England and assassinated Becket before the altar of Canterbury Cathedral, December 11, 1170. The murdered Primate was one of the most remarkable men that England ever produced; being "a prelate of the most lofty, intrepid and inflexible spirit, who was able to cover to the world, and probably to himself, the enterprises of pride and ambition under the disguise of sanctity, and of zeal for the interests of religion."

Assassination of Becket

Consternation of Henry II.

Henry II. had intended to arrest Becket, but the news of the assassination of the Primate filled the king with consternation. Henry II. solemnly protested his innocence of complicity in the murder, and the Pope accepted his oath and consented to be appeased. Becket's tomb was revered as a martyr's shrine. In one year a hundred thousand pilgrims flocked thither from all parts of Christendom, and miracles were said to have been wrought by the holy relics. The murdered Primate was canonized by the Pope under the title of St. Thomas of Canterbury. The assassins went on a pilgrimage to Jerusalem, where they died; and on their tomb was inscribed this epitaph: "Here lie the wretches who murdered St. Thomas of Canterbury."

Canonization of Becket.

The King's Triumph.

The struggle between church and state ended in the king's ultimate triumph. The clergy and the laity were made equal before the law. The supremacy of the state over the Church was achieved. Although Henry II. assented to a modification of the Constitutions of Clarendon after the assassination of Becket, this modification was merely nominal; the practice of the courts and the submission of the bishops showing that the king still retained all the substantial fruits of victory.

English Conquest of Ireland.

One of the most important events of the reign of Henry II. was the conquest of Ireland, the ancient Hibernia, also known as Erin and the Emerald Isle, and the annexation of that fair isle to the realm of England. Many of the Celtic tribes of Ireland had early embraced Christianity: and the conversion of the inhabitants was completed by St. Patrick in the fifth century. After the Saxons had conquered Britain the Irish made peace with them, instructed them in religion and founded schools among them. St. Bridget flourished in the sixth century, when the principal monastery of Ireland contained over a thousand monks.

Previous History of Ireland.

St. Patrick and St. Bridget.

For two centuries the piratical Danes ravaged Ireland as well as England and the Continent, and subdued the Irish people, who were under different chiefs. The Danes oppressed the conquered Irish with

heavy taxes, subjecting the master of every house to a *nose-tax*, so called because the master of the house was required to pay an ounce of gold annually or have his nose cut off. The Danes were finally defeated by Brian Boru, King of Munster, who fought twenty-five battles with these marauders. This famous Irish hero maintained a large army and a fleet of three hundred vessels. To test the order prevailing in his kingdom, Brian Boru directed that a beautiful virgin should traverse it unprotected, carrying a costly ring on a wand; which she did without molestation. In the year A. D. 1000 Brian Boru was elected king of all Ireland, and the Irish people enjoyed peace and prosperity under his wise and vigorous administration, while intercourse was opened by Irish ambassadors with the various courts of Europe. Brian Boru finally broke the power of the Danes in Ireland in the great battle of Clontarf, near Dublin, A. D. 1014, but purchased his victory with the cost of his life. After his death Ireland was again divided, and devastated by wars between the rival chiefs or kings.

Danish Invasions and Conquest of Ireland.

Danes Defeated by Brian Boru.

His Rule as King of Ireland.

His Victory and Death at Clontarf.

What first suggested to England the design of conquering and annexing Ireland was the Irish kidnapping of Englishmen and carrying them into slavery in Ireland, which had been going on for many years. In the very year that Henry II. became King of England, A. D. 1154, Nicholas Breakspear, the only Englishman who ever became Pope, was elected to the Chair of St. Peter and assumed the title of Adrian IV. Pope Adrian IV. immediately granted authority to King Henry II. to conquer Ireland, which was then divided into five native kingdoms—Ulster, Munster, Leinster, Connaught and Meath.

Irish Enslavement of Englishmen.

Grant of Pope Adrian IV. to Henry II.

Although Pope Adrian IV. had granted to King Henry II. the right to invade and conquer Ireland as early as 1154, nothing was attempted in that direction until 1169. At it was usual for one of the five kings of Ireland to take the lead in the wars among them, he was styled king of the whole island. At this time Roderic O'Connor, King of Connaught, was elevated to that dignity. Dermot MacMorrogh, King of Leinster, had kidnapped the daughter of the King of Meath, who was strengthened by the alliance of the King of Connaught, and was thus enabled to invade Leinster and punish its king. Thereupon Dermot MacMorrogh appealed to the King of England for aid against the other Irish kings.

Roderic O'Connor and Dermot MacMorrogh.

King Henry II. readily accepted Dermot MacMorrogh's offer, but as he was then occupied in his French dominions he only gave letters-patent authorizing all his subjects to aid the King of Leinster to recover his dominions. Relying on this authority, Dermot MacMorrogh returned to Bristol, in England, where, after some difficulty, he concluded a treaty with Richard de Clare, Earl of Pembroke, surnamed

Strongbow's Aid to Dermot MacMorrogh.

Strongbow, who agreed to aid the exiled King of Leinster in recovering his dominions on condition of receiving Dermot's daughter Eva in marriage and being declared heir of his kingdom. Being thus assured of aid from England, Dermot MacMorrogh returned privately to Ireland, and concealed himself during the winter in the monastery of Ferns, which he had founded.

Norman Adventurers in Ireland.

In the spring of 1169 Robert Fitz-Stephen, a Norman knight, landed in Ireland, at Bannow, on the Bann, a creek near Wexford, with one hundred and thirty knights, sixty esquires and three hundred archers. They were soon joined by Maurice Pendergast, who brought over ten knights and sixty archers about the same time; and with this small band they besieged and took Wexford, A. D. 1169. The Norman adventurers were reinforced by one hundred and fifty men under Maurice Fitz-Gerald, and the entire band composed a small army which struck awe into the barbarous Irish. Roderic O'Connor, King of Connaught and chief monarch of Ireland, ventured to oppose the Norman invaders, but he was defeated; and the Prince of Ossory was obliged to submit soon afterward and to give hostages for his future good behavior.

Defeats of Irish Princes.

Dermot MacMorrogh and Strongbow.

Being thus reinstated in his hereditary Kingdom of Leinster, Dermot MacMorrogh soon entertained hopes of extending his dominion over all Ireland. With these views he sought to expedite Strongbow, who had been thus far prohibited by King Henry II. from crossing over into Ireland. Dermot MacMorrogh endeavored to arouse his ambition by the glory of the conquest of Ireland, and to excite his avarice by the advantages which that conquest would procure. He expatiated on the cowardice of the Irish and on the certainty of success.

Strongbow's Invasion of Ireland.

Strongbow first sent over Raymond, one of his retinue, with ten knights and seventy archers; and after receiving permission for himself from King Henry II., soon afterward, he landed in Ireland with two hundred cavalry and a hundred archers. All these English forces were now combined and became irresistible, although altogether they numbered only about eleven hundred men. The Irish were so barbarous that they were unable to withstand this Anglo-Norman chivalry, and were everywhere routed. Strongbow speedily took the city of Waterford soon after landing, A. D. 1170, and also took Dublin by assault. Soon afterward Strongbow married Eva, Dermot MacMorrogh's daughter; and Dermot himself died about the same time, bequeathing his Kingdom of Leinster to Strongbow, according to the treaty between them.

His Victories.

His Marriage with Eva.

Invasion of Ireland by Henry II.

Ireland was thus practically subdued, as nothing was capable of resisting the further progress of the English arms; and Henry II. was now willing to share personally in those honors which the Norman adventurers had already secured. He therefore landed in Ireland in

1171 with five hundred knights and some soldiers, simply to take possession of a kingdom already conquered and to receive the homage of his new subjects. He confirmed most of the Irish chiefs in possession of their estates, on condition of feudal homage; and after appointing Strongbow as his Seneschal, or Lord Lieutenant, of Ireland, he returned to England to receive the congratulations of his subjects and the Pope's confirmation of his new sovereignty.

The English Conquest of Ireland.

Thus seven centuries ago the English conquered the Emerald Isle with trifling expense of blood and treasure, and that beautiful island has ever since been an appendage of the English crown. But the English authority was merely nominal; and for centuries Ireland remained in a condition of complete anarchy, torn by the contentions of the Anglo-Norman lords and the native Irish chiefs.

Circuit Judges in England.

One of the most interesting works of the reign of Henry II. was his improvement of the judiciary system founded by Henry I. He divided England into six judicial districts, each with three traveling judges, who went regularly on their circuits, having jurisdiction over noble and peasant, and trying all cases brought before them. In this way the subject was spared the great expense of a journey to London, and justice was made easily accessible to all the people of England.

Former Modes of Trial.

The most radical change during the reign of Henry II. was that made in the form of trial. We have alluded to the method of trial called the Ordeal, or the Judgment of God, and also to the form called Compurgation, when the accused was convicted or acquitted on the oaths of his kinsmen or neighbors—both of which modes were brought from Germany by the Anglo-Saxons. We have also referred to the method of Wager of Battle, or Single Combat, introduced by William the Conqueror.

Jury Trial.

The first mention of Trial by Jury handed down to us occurred during the reign of Henry II., when by the Assize of Clarendon, in 1166, twelve freemen chosen from the hundred, and four from each township, acting in the double capacity of judges and witnesses, presented alleged criminals for the Judgment of God or the Wager of Battle. The same Assize abolished Compurgation.

Rebellion of the Sons of Henry II

The Plantagenets inherited the tendency to family quarrels, along with their dominions, from the Norman dynasty. The four sons of Henry II. were aided and abetted by their mother, Queen Eleanor, and by her former husband, King Louis VII. of France, in rebellion against their father. War broke out in Henry's French dominions; and at the same time his English kingdom was invaded by the Scots from the north and by the Flemings from the east.

Foreign Invasions.

These calamities aroused the king's sluggish conscience, and he determined to make peace with the murdered Thomas à Becket. Accord-

Penance of Henry II. at Canterbury Cathedral.

ingly in 1174 he returned to England from Normandy on a pilgrimage of penitence, and when he came within sight of Canterbury Cathedral he dismounted and walked bareheaded and barefooted to Becket's tomb, where he fasted and prayed all day and all night; after which he caused the whole brotherhood of monks to be assembled, presented each of them with a scourge, and begged them to apply the lashes severely to his bare back, "for the good of his soul." The next day he received absolution for all his crimes and errors; and soon afterward he was informed that on the same day his army in the North had defeated and captured King William the Lion of Scotland near Alnwick Castle. This happy omen was regarded as proof of St. Thomas's forgiveness and of the favor of Heaven. King Louis VII. of France also made peace; Henry's rebellious sons returned to obedience; and King William the Lion of Scotland, with all his nobles and bishops, did homage to Henry II., acknowledging himself and his posterity as vassals of the Plantagenets.

Submission of Henry's Sons and of William the Lion of Scotland.

Fresh Rebellions of the Sons of Henry II.

The domestic peace of Henry II. did not last very long. He had assigned Ireland to his youngest and favorite son, John; but that prince showed his wretched unfitness to govern, by driving the Irish chiefs into rebellion, and his father was obliged to recall him. Another son, Prince Henry, died in France, in the midst of the rebellion which he renewed against his father; and Richard, the eldest surviving son and therefore now the heir to his father's dominions, as soon as his brother Geoffrey, with whom he had been at war, had been killed in a tournament at Paris, also took up arms against his father. Soon after Geoffrey's death his widow gave birth to a son, who was named Arthur, and whom Henry II. invested with the duchy of Brittany, of which, as Duke of Normandy, he was the feudal lord.

Arthur of Brittany.

Humiliating Peace of Henry II. with His Enemies.

Henry II. was so humiliated and enfeebled by the unnatural conduct of his sons that he finally agreed to all the demands of his enemies, one of which was a free pardon to the barons who had taken part in Richard's rebellion. After the treaty of peace had been signed, the king, who was then sick in bed, asked to see the list of the rebels that he had consented to pardon; and then the unhappy king saw with grief and amazement that his youngest and favorite son John's name was at the head of the list. His heart was broken by this last stroke of ingratitude, and he turned his face toward the wall, saying: "Now let the world go as it will, I care for nothing more." He died of fever after a few weeks' illness, at the castle of Chinon, on the Loire, in the county of Touraine, July 6, A. D. 1189, in the fifty-eighth year of his age and the thirty-fourth of his reign.

His Sorrow and Death.

Richard the Lion-hearted, A D. 1189–1199.

Henry II. was succeeded in all his dominions by his second son, RICHARD THE LION-HEARTED, whose rebellion had hastened his father's

death. Richard's penitence for his undutiful conduct toward his father was lasting, and was productive of good for England, as he discarded the men who had supported him in his rebellion, and retained his father's faithful ministers in office, making them his counselors and friends. **His First Good Acts.**

Richard the Lion-hearted was in no sense an Englishman, and his reign had very little influence on English history. He was a Frenchman by birth education and character; and during his ten years' reign he visited England but twice, and then only for a few months at a time. He was a valiant Crusader, a model knight, a brilliant poet, a gallant hero of romance. His most famous acts were connected with the Third Crusade, of which he was the principal hero. He was a skillful musician, and was familiar with the songs of the Troubadours. **His Many-sided Character.**

Richard the Lion-hearted was of heroic stature, of noble and commanding appearance; and was possessed of the most indomitable courage, of unusual strength and of great endurance. He loved tilts and tournaments better than royal courts, daring deeds on hard-fought battlefields more than cares and responsibilities of government. His very name, embalmed in song and story, has become a synonym for Chivalry. In him the king was subordinate to the knight. He was fearless of danger and mighty in battle, courteous to a gallant enemy and generous to a fallen foe. **His Chivalric Qualities.**

Notwithstanding Richard's knightly virtues, beneath his iron armor there beat a hard, cold, selfish heart. Like his father he had an ungovernable temper. He was ambitious, haughty, domineering, revengeful, cruel, unscrupulous. He stained his knightly honor by many a dark and brutal deed. He cared little for the happiness or welfare of his subjects, his ambition being limited to the power to gratify an inordinate love of military glory and daring adventure. The English have always been dazzled by his brilliant personal qualities and proud of his world-wide renown. **His Dark Side.**

Richard's hatred of unbelievers—a highly Christian sentiment, according to the ideas of those times—produced deplorable consequences on the day of his coronation. The London Jews, who were numerous and wealthy, offered gifts of gold to celebrate the occasion, hoping thus to propitiate the royal favor. But the king had forbidden them to approach the banqueting-hall; their messengers were driven away; and suddenly a rumor was circulated that the king had ordered a general massacre of all the Jews. An ignorant, fanatical and bloodthirsty mob thereupon slaughtered these despised and defenseless people, burned their houses and seized their hidden treasures. **Massacre of Jews in London.**

As the news of this horror in London spread to other cities of England the same frenzy seized the inhabitants, the same terrible scenes **And in York.**

were enacted, the same horrible massacre of innocent and helpless Hebrews. At York five hundred Jews, with their families, fled for refuge to the castle, which was soon surrounded by an armed and furious mob. The Jews vainly offered their wealth as a ransom for their lives. Hoping for neither justice nor mercy, they plunged their daggers into the bodies of their own wives and children rather than see them fall victims to their infuriated enemies, and then set fire to the castle and perished in the flames. King Richard the Lion-hearted had accepted their gifts and issued a proclamation in their favor, but he took no adequate measures for their protection.

Richard the Lion-hearted and the Third Crusade.

In the summer of 1190 Richard the Lion-hearted united with King Philip Augustus of France and the chivalrous German Emperor Frederick Barbarossa in the Third Crusade. The Kings of England and France had arranged to proceed together to the Holy Land. To raise money for this Crusade, Richard sold crown-lands, offices, titles and pardons, and even released King William the Lion of Scotland from his allegiance, also restoring to him the fortresses of Berwick and Roxburgh, the proudest acquisitions of King Henry II. When rebuked by one of his friends for his lavish disposal of crown property, Richard is said to have replied: "I would sell London, if I could find a purchaser."

His Journey to the Holy Land.

Richard left the government of England in charge of his Chancellor, William Longchamp, Bishop of Ely, and started on his expedition to Palestine. The Kings of England and France met at Vezelay, where they discovered that their combined armies numbered one hundred thousand men. They sailed from different ports on the Mediterranean, but storms forced both to pass the winter in Sicily, where their warm friendship was changed into rivalry and hatred.

His Marriage with Berengaria of Navarre.

At Messina Richard was joined by the Princess Berengaria of Navarre, to whom he was already betrothed. As the marriage could not be performed in Lent, she sailed in company with her sister for the Holy Land. The vessel was once more overtaken by storms and driven into a port in the island of Cyprus, where the ladies suffered very rude treatment, and the crews of two attendant vessels were murdered in their presence.

His Victory over King Isaac of Cyprus.

When Richard heard of this insult he landed in Cyprus, defeated its king, Isaac, in two battles, took him prisoner and loaded him with chains, assuming the sovereignty of the island for himself. The rejoicings for this victory over King Isaac were completed by Richard's marriage.

His Capture of Acre.

Upon arriving in Palestine the Kings of England and France found all the Christian forces occupied in the siege of the important seaport of Acre, which had withstood them two years. The arrival of the Crusaders inspired the Christian besieging army with such courage that

Acre was soon forced to surrender, A. D. 1191. But Philip Augustus had now grown envious of the superior fame of Richard the Lion-hearted, and soon returned to France, after first taking a solemn oath not to meddle with England or Normandy. Richard's career in the Holy Land was full of stirring incidents of battle and adventure. He fought his way one hundred miles from Acre to Ascalon, where he defeated the renowned Sultan Saladin of Egypt in a great battle, A. D. 1192.

His Career in the Holy Land.

At this juncture Richard the Lion-hearted received important news from England. His brother John had usurped the regency, and, in alliance with the King of France, was attempting to deprive Richard of all his dominions. Richard, in great alarm for his English and French dominions, embarked to return home; after first concluding a truce with Saladin by which the Christian pilgrims were permitted to visit the Holy Sepulcher unmolested, and relinquishing his purpose to attempt the recovery of Jerusalem, the goal of so many hopes, whose walls were in sight, but which he was never destined to enter.

Cause of His Return.

His Treaty with Saladin.

Richard started by sea on his return home in 1192; but his vessel was wrecked in the Adriatic, and Richard landed at a port on that sea, whence he attempted to make his way to England by land through Germany, disguised as a merchant. He was recognized at Vienna by Duke Leopold of Austria, who seized him in revenge for his insult in causing the German flag to be torn down from the battlements of Acre and the English banner to be raised instead. The Duke of Austria sold his royal captive to his sovereign, Henry VI. of Germany, who loaded him with chains and imprisoned him in the little castle of Trifels, in the Tyrol.

His Captivity in Germany.

Richard's enemies all hastened to take advantage of his misfortune. King Philip Augustus of France invaded the duchy of Normandy, and Richard's own brother John demanded the crown of England. Both sent messengers to the Emperor Henry VI., offering him a large sum of money to keep Richard in life-long captivity.

Action of His Enemies.

In the meantime Richard's mother Eleanor besought Pope Celestine III. to interfere for her captive son's release; setting forth the shame in permitting the champion of Christendom, the hero whose strong right arm had struck down so many enemies of the Cross, to languish in captivity. Finally, after a year's imprisonment, the captive king was summoned before the Diet of the Germano-Roman Empire to plead his own cause. His eloquence and the fame of his great exploits in the Holy Land moved the hearts of the German princes and bishops; and the Emperor Henry VI. was forced, by the Pope's threat of excommunication and by the indignation of the German princes and prelates, to release Richard the Lion-hearted on the payment of a ransom

His Ransom, Release and Return to England.

of one hundred and fifty thousand marks by the English people. All classes in England were reduced to the greatest distress to raise this sum, the churches even melting down their plate. The English people, who remembered John's merciless extortions, joyfully welcomed Richard the Lion-hearted, who arrived in England in 1194, after an absence of four years.

John's Submission and Penitence. His brother John was startled by the announcement from King Philip Augustus of France: "Take care of yourself, for the devil is unchained." John hastened to leave the country, but returned at Richard's command, and confessed on his knees his traitorous designs, at the same time humbly begging for pardon. Said Richard with characteristic generosity: "I hope I shall as easily forget his ingratitude as he will my forbearance."

His Invasion of France. After remaining in England but a few months, Richard the Lion-hearted crossed over into France to engage in hostilities with King Philip Augustus. When Richard was informed that the Viscount of Limousin, one of his French vassals, had found hidden treasure in one of his fields, he demanded its surrender, according to the common law

His Death in a Private Quarrel. that made treasure-trove the property of the feudal lord. The Viscount of Limousin refused compliance, and Richard at once besieged him in his castle of Chalus, but received a mortal wound during the siege, so that the hero of the Third Crusade perished in a private quarrel, April, A. D. 1199.

John, A. D. 1199–1216. Richard's brother JOHN, surnamed *Lackland*, then became King of England, lord of Ireland, Duke of Normandy with the suzerainty of Brittany, Duke of Aquitaine with the suzerainty of Gascony, Count of Anjou, Maine, Poitou and Touraine; and was crowned at Westminster the next month, May, A. D. 1199.

His Despicable Character. John was a weak, cowardly, incompetent, cruel, tyrannical and licentious sovereign; and his reign was one of continued misfortune for England. He was as base and cowardly as Richard the Lion-hearted was generous and chivalrous. His brazen boldness in the midst of safety speedily vanished in the presence of danger. He was grossly impious in his treatment of the sacred rites of the Church; but he was childishly superstitious, wearing charms and relics about his person as a safeguard against evil. Other Kings of England have been corrupt, but John was the most basely licentious of all of them.

John and Prince Arthur of Brittany. John's nephew, Prince Arthur of Brittany, the son of his dead brother, Geoffrey Plantagenet, claimed John's territories in France; and King Philip Augustus of France espoused the cause of the young prince, who was a mere boy of fifteen. The King of France was unable to render Prince Arthur any active aid at first; but John's abduction of Isabella of Angoulême, the affianced bride of the Count de la

RICHARD CŒUR DE LION FORGIVING HIS ASSASSIN

From the Painting by John Cross

Marche, afforded King Philip Augustus an opportunity of fulfilling his promise to the young prince. In the war which followed, King John took his youthful nephew prisoner, with many of his adherents, most of whom were starved to death. Prince Arthur himself was believed to have been stabbed to death by his wicked and cruel uncle in the castle of Rouen, A. D. 1203. The young prince's sister Eleanor was kept in close confinement by John until she wasted away and died.

Murder of Arthur.

King Philip Augustus, as John's feudal superior for his provinces in France, summoned him to answer for the murder of Prince Arthur; and, as John refused to appear, the French king declared all of his fiefs and lordships in France forfeited to the French crown, being sustained in that action by the "Peers of France." The universal horror produced by John's crime wrought powerfully against that despicable tyrant; and King Philip Augustus took castle after castle, and wrested from John by conquest the counties of Anjou, Maine, Poitou and Touraine, and finally the duchies of Normandy and Brittany; so that the duchy of Aquitaine, or Guienne, and the Channel Isles were the only French possessions remaining to the Plantagenets. The Channel Isles —Jersey, Guernsey and Alderney—still remain in England's possession.

John's War with Philip Augustus of France.

Philip's Conquest of John's French Possessions.

John raised a large army and invaded the French territories to recover his lost possessions; but when the hostile armies were on the eve of battle he proposed peace, and fled ignominiously to England in the very midst of the negotiations. It was in consequence of the loss of his French territories that John received the surname of *Lackland*. This loss was a great gain for England in the end; because, when her kings had lost their feudal possessions in France, they were obliged to confine their attention to England, and thus became Englishmen, instead of being any longer French princes ruling England.

John's Ignominious Peace with Philip Augustus.

Benefit to England.

King John was next involved in a violent quarrel with Pope Innocent III. about the appointment of an Archbishop of Canterbury. John had secured the election of John de Gray to that dignity by the monks; but the Pope annulled the election and forced the monks of Christ's Church, Canterbury, to choose Stephen Langton. Langton was a good man, but the Pope's action was a violation of English rights in church and state. The angry king punished the monks for their compliance with the Pope's commands, by turning them out of doors, seizing their lands and treasures, and thus reducing them to beggary.

John's Quarrel with Pope Innocent III.

For the purpose of forcing John to compliance, Pope Innocent III. threatened to lay his kingdom under an interdict. The despicable king made light of the Pope's threat. In 1208 Innocent III. made good his threat, and the papal interdict fell upon England with all its horrors. The whole country was at once plunged into the deepest gloom.

England under the Pope's Interdict.

To the people the interdict was nothing less than the curse of God. The blessings and benedictions of religion were suddenly denied to every one except the innocent babe and the dying. During the four years that England thus remained under the Pope's curse it was as though a pestilence had spread its horrors over the land. The churches were closed, and their bells were not rung. "No knell was tolled for the dead; for the dead remained unburied. No merry peals welcomed the bridal procession; for no couple could be joined in wedlock."

John's Excommunication by Innocent III.

John still remained obdurate; and after waiting two years for his submission, Pope Innocent III. finally excommunicated the obstinate king, A. D. 1210. Even this did not have the desired effect upon the contumacious monarch; and two years later, A. D. 1212, Innocent III. pronounced a decree deposing John from his throne, absolving all his subjects from their allegiance to him, and declaring a crusade against him, so that it was made lawful and Christian for any man to kill the deposed monarch. Nothing could be more deplorable than John's situation at this time. Furious at his indignities, jealous of his subjects, not knowing whom to trust, and fearing a plot against his life, he shut himself up an entire night in the castle of Nottingham, and allowed no one to come near him.

Threatened French Invasion of England Frustrated.

The crusade preached against John by the Pope called upon all Christian princes and barons to make war upon the excommunicated and deposed king. Innocent III. especially commissioned the King of France to execute his decree of deposition, and Philip Augustus readily undertook to enforce the Pope's final decree. John continued defiant for a time, and if his English subjects hated him they had no love for Philip Augustus. Mustering a gigantic fleet, the Earl of Salisbury crossed the Channel and attacked the French at the mouth of the Seine, after which his victorious armies ravaged the coast of Normandy; thus ending the danger of a French invasion for the time.

The Pope's Intimation.

John continued defiant for a while longer. Europe now impatiently watched the struggle between the Head of Christendom and the King of England—the struggle in which the Church was either to triumph or to be overthrown. But Pope Innocent III. was too refined a politician for either the King of England or the King of France. The astute pontiff intended only to intimidate and humble the refractory king, not to ruin him. The Pope therefore intimated to John, through his legate in England, that there was only one way by which the king could secure himself against impending danger, and that was to place himself under the protection of the Pope, who was a merciful father, ever willing to receive a repentant sinner to his bosom.

John was too much intimidated by the manifest danger of his situation not to embrace every means offered for his safety. Finding no

John's Humiliating Submission to the Pope.

encouragement in his resistance, and the elements of opposition in his own kingdom gathering about him like a thick cloud, his bravado forsook him, and he yielded to all the Pope's demands, assenting to the truth of the papal legate's remonstrances, and taking an oath to perform whatever stipulation the Pope should impose upon him; so that his submission to Innocent III. was as abject and humiliating as it was sudden and complete.

John's Abject Oath of Vassalage to Pope Innocent III.

King John having thus sworn to perform any command which the Pope might impose, the skillful papal legate, Pandolf, managed the barons so well, and intimidated the despicable king so effectually, that he persuaded John to take a most extraordinary oath. Every true Englishman was antagonized when this degenerate descendant of William the Conqueror, this cowardly son of Henry Plantagenet, this craven-hearted brother of the lion-hearted Richard, laid his crown at the feet of the papal legate, and on his knees before the legate took a solemn oath acknowledging himself a vassal of Pope Innocent III. and his Kingdoms of England and Ireland as papal fiefs, for which tribute should be paid, in the following words:

Language of this Oath.

"I, John, by the grace of God, King of England and Lord of Ireland, in order to expiate my sins, from my own free will and the advice of my barons, give to the Church of Rome, to Pope Innocent III. and his successors, the Kingdom of England and all other prerogatives of my crown. I will hereafter hold them as the Pope's vassal. I will be faithful to God, to the Church of Rome, to the Pope my master, and his successors legitimately elected. I promise to pay him a tribute of a thousand marks yearly; to wit, seven hundred for the Kingdom of England, and three hundred for the Kingdom of Ireland."

John Receives Back His Crown as the Pope's Vassal.

This was the only time in England's history of a thousand years that a King of England surrendered the independence of his country to a foreign potentate. After thus doing homage to the Pope for his crown, restoring the monks and nuns to their possessions, and recognizing Langton as Archbishop of Canterbury, John received back his crown as the Pope's vassal; while the papal legate trampled under his feet the tribute which the humiliated king had consented to pay. Upon his submission, Pope Innocent III. recalled his hostile decrees, and forbade King Philip Augustus of France to make war on the King of England, who was now the Pope's vassal, and whose kingdom was now one of the territories of the Church.

John's Situation.

Thus, by the most humiliating and complete concessions, did King John avert the threatened blow. In this way, by repeated acts of cruelty, by expeditions without result and humiliations without reserve, did this despicable and imbecile monarch become the detestation of all mankind.

Rebellion of Archbishop Langton and the English Barons.

The degradation of England enraged the barons, whose indignation had already been aroused by King John's disregard of their rights. Archbishop Langton was a true Englishman, and was faithful to his high office as an advocate and champion of the people's rights. He convened a council of barons and bishops at St. Edmundsbury, November 20, 1214, to whom he showed a recently found copy of the Charter of Liberties granted by King Henry I., and urged the assembled bishops and barons to insist upon the renewal and enforcement of the charter. Accordingly, the barons assembled their vassals and proceeded to rebellion against their king. John suddenly found himself face to face with all England in arms against him; and, being deserted by all his vassals except seven knights, he was obliged to grant all that his great vassals demanded.

Their Demands and John's Rage.

The rebellious barons assembled a large army at Stamford, whence they marched to Brackley, about fifteen miles from Oxford, where the king then resided. Hearing of their approach, John sent Archbishop Langton, the Earl of Pembroke and other members of his council, to inquire what were the liberties which the revolted barons so much desired. The barons delivered a schedule containing the principal articles of their demands, of which the code of Edward the Confessor and the Charter of Liberties granted by Henry I. constituted the ground-work. As soon as these demands were shown to the king he burst into a furious rage and asked why the barons did not also demand his kingdom, swearing that he would never comply with such humiliating demands.

Their Warlike Action.

But the barons were now too strong for the weak king to cope with. They chose Robert Fitz-Walter for their general, dignifying him with the title of *Mareschal of the Army of God and of the Holy Church*, and proceeded to make war upon the king without further ceremony. They besieged Northampton, took Bedford, and were welcomed with joy in London. They wrote circular letters to all the nobility and gentry who had not yet declared in their favor, and threatened to ravage their estates in case of refusal or delay.

John's Proposal Rejected by the Barons.

The terrified king, in utter consternation, first offered to refer all controversies to Pope Innocent III. alone, or to eight barons, four to be selected by himself, and four by the whole body of the revolted barons. The barons rejected John's proposition with scorn. He then assured them that he would submit at discretion, and that it was his supreme pleasure to grant all their demands. A conference was therefore appointed, and all things were arranged for this most important settlement.

Meeting of John and the Barons at Runnymede.

Accordingly, the king's commissioners met the revolted barons in the meadow called *Runnymede*, on the Thames, between Staines and Windsor—a place ever since held in reverence as the spot where the standard

of constitutional freedom was first unfurled in England. There the barons appeared with a host of knights and warriors, June 15, 1215; while the king's representatives and forces came at the same time. Both sides encamped apart, like open enemies. The armed barons would admit of but few abatements; and, as the king's agents were mainly in the interest of his enemies, few debates ensued. On the same day King John signed and sealed the charter demanded of him—a charter which remains in force to the present day—the famous *Magna Charta*, "Great Charter"—the bulwark and foundation of English constitutional liberty; on which are based all the liberties enjoyed by the people of Great Britain and the United States—the most precious heritage of all the English races of the world.

Magna Charta Signed by John.

Some of the most important principles of this great charter of English freedom can be traced to Anglo-Saxon origin, having been set aside by the Norman Conquest of England; while others were brought from the reigns of Henry I. and Henry II.; but all were made more broad and liberal, and were couched in the most explicit terms. The preamble of Magna Charta is as follows:

Origin of Its Principles.

"John, by the grace of God, King of England, Lord of Ireland, Duke of Normandy and Aquitaine, and Count of Anjou; to his archbishops, bishops, abbots, earls, barons, justiciaries, foresters, sheriffs, governors, officers, and to all his bailiffs and liegemen, greeting:

Its Preamble.

"Know ye, that in presence of God, and for the health of our soul and the soul of our ancestors and heirs, and to the honor of God, and to the exaltation of His Holy Church, and for the amendment of our kingdom; by advice of our venerable fathers, Stephen, Archbishop of Canterbury, Primate of all England, and Cardinal of the Holy Roman Church; Henry, Archbishop of Dublin; William of London, Peter of Winchester, Jocelyn of Bath and Glastonbury, Hugh of Lincoln, Walter of Worcester, William of Coventry, and Benedict of Rochester, bishops; Master Pandolf, our lord the Pope's subdeacon and servant; Brother Aymeric, master of the Temple in England; and the noblemen William Marescall, Earl of Pembroke, William Earl of Salisbury, William Earl of Warren, William Earl of Arundel, Alan de Galloway, Constable of Scotland, Warin Fitzgerald, Peter Fitzherbert, Hubert de Burgh, Seneschal of Poitou, Hugh de Neville, Matthew Fitzherbert, Thomas Basset, Alan Basset, Philip de Albiney, Robert de Roppelaye, John Marescall, John Fitzhugh, and others our liegemen; we have granted to God, and by this our present charter confirmed, for us and our heirs forever."

Preamble Continued.

The first clause is as follows: "That the English Church shall be free and enjoy her whole liberties inviolate. And that we will have them so to be observed, appears from this that of our mere good will

Its First Clause.

we granted, and by our charter confirmed, the freedom of elections which was reckoned most necessary for the English Church, and obtained the confirmation thereof from our lord the Pope Innocent the Third, before the discord which has arisen between us and our barons; which charter we will ourselves observe, and will that it be observed in good faith by our heirs forever. We have also for us and our heirs forever granted to all the freemen of our kingdom, all the underwritten liberties to have and to hold to them and their heirs from us and our heirs."

Liberties Thus Secured.

The first clause just related secured the liberties of the Church in England. Other clauses remedied the grievances of the barons as tenants of the crown, and among these provisions was a specification that "no scutage or aid (assistance in money from a vassal to his lord) except in the three general feudal cases, the king's captivity, the knighting of his eldest son and the marrying of his eldest daughter, shall be imposed, but by the great council of the kingdom."

Privileges of the Barons and Their Vassals.

Measures were likewise inserted to prevent the arbitrary seizures of the lands of the nobles by the crown. After thus securing their own rights, the barons placed the liberties of the people on as sound a basis. It was ordained that all the privileges and immunities granted to the barons by the king should be extended by the barons to *their* vassals. The king bound himself not to grant any writ empowering a baron to levy any scutage or aid from his vassals, except in the three feudal cases already referred to.

Privileges of Merchants and Freemen.

It was also ordained that one weight and one measure should be established throughout the kingdom. Merchants should be allowed to transact all business, without being exposed to any arbitrary tolls and impositions. The merchants and all freemen should be permitted to go out of the kingdom and return at their pleasure.

Municipal Privileges.

The towns were secured in the enjoyment of their municipal privileges and their ancient liberties, immunities and free customs, their freedom from arbitrary taxation, their rights of justice, of common deliberation, of regulation of trade. This memorable article reads thus: "Let the city of London have all its old liberties and its free customs, as well by land as by water. Besides this, we will and grant that all other cities and boroughs and towns and ports have all their liberties and free customs." Aids were not to be required of these cities and burgs except by the consent of the great council of the kingdom.

Various Provisions.

No towns or individuals were to be obliged to make or support bridges, except by ancient custom. The goods of every freeman were to be disposed of according to his will. If he died intestate his heirs were to succeed to their possession. No officer of the crown had the right to take any horses, carts or wood without the owner's consent.

Courts of Justice.

It was provided that the king's courts of justice should be stationary, that they should no longer follow the king's person, and that they should be open to every one. Circuits were to be regularly held every year. The inferior tribunals of justice—the county courts, sheriff's turn and courtleet—were to meet at their appointed times and places. The sheriff was incapacitated to hold pleas of the crown, and was not authorized to put any person on trial from mere rumor or suspicion, but upon the testimony of lawful witnesses. The following are the two most important provisions securing the liberties of Englishmen: "*No freeman shall be taken, or imprisoned, or dispossessed, or outlawed, or banished, or in any way destroyed; nor will we pass upon him, nor commit him, but by the lawful judgment of his peers, or by the law of the land.*

Two Most Important Provisions.

"*To no man will we sell, to none will we delay, to none will we deny, right or justice.*"

Privileges of Freemen and Villains.

Those who suffered otherwise in the reigns of John and his two immediate predecessors were to have their rights and possessions restored to them. It was also provided that every freeman should be fined in proportion to his fault, and that no fine should be levied on him to his utter ruin. Even a villain or rustic was not to be deprived of his carts, plows and farming implements. Even the worst was not to be deprived of the means of livelihood.

Abolition of Exactions and Abuses.

Many irregular exactions were abolished, or assessed at a regular rate. The under-tenants or farmers were protected against all lawless exactions of their lords in precisely the same terms as the barons were protected against the lawless exactions of the crown. The abuses of wardship were reformed; and widows were protected against the compulsory marriages to which they had been subjected for the profit of the crown. It was provided that the bishops and the greater barons were to be summoned to the great council of the nation by special writ, and all tenants-in-chief through the sheriffs and bailiffs, at least forty days before.

Great Council.

Last Clause of the Great Charter.

The last clause is as follows: "Wherefore we do will and firmly do command that the Church of England be free; and that all men in our kingdom have and hold all the aforesaid liberties, and rights, and grants, well and in peace, freely and quietly, fully and wholly, as aforesaid, to them and their heirs, from us and our heirs forever. It is also sworn, as well on our part, as on that of the barons, that all the things aforesaid shall be observed in good faith and without evil intention. Witnessed by the above and many others. Given by our own hand, in the mead called Runnymede, between Windsor and Staines, this fifteenth day of June, in the seventeenth year of our reign."

Copy in the British Museum.

One copy of this precious document still remains in the British Museum, injured by age and fire, but with the royal seal still hanging from the brown, shriveled parchment. Says the late John Richard Green, the eminent English historian: "It is impossible to gaze without reverence on the earliest monument of English freedom which we can see with our own eyes and touch with our own hands, the Great Charter to which from age to age patriots have looked back as the basis of English liberty." Hallam truly calls Magna Charta "the keystone of English liberty."

Green's Remark.

Permanence of the Principles of Magna Charta.

All the benefits conferred by the Great Charter were not realized by the English people for hundreds of years thereafter. Though its provisions were frequently ignored and openly trodden under foot by John and his successors, the great principles of liberty and justice which these provisions embodied were never forgotten by the English people. Amid the oppressions of aftertimes, these principles became the centers around which clustred the national hopes, the goal toward which the national efforts were directed. These principles were the beacon lights in an almost shoreless sea of misgovernment, guiding an oppressed people in their struggle for constitutional freedom. These principles are to-day the foundation and the bulwark of those liberties and privileges which render England and the United States the freest and happiest nations on the globe. Such was the foundation of the free constitution of England.

Patriotism of the Bishops and Barons.

The unflinching patriotism of Archbishop Langton and most of the bishops of the Church of England in this momentous crisis should never be forgotten. Langton himself was the leader of the opposition to John's tyranny and the Pope's assumptions. The bishops and the barons stood side by side at Runnymede, indifferent alike to the king's execrations and the Pope's anathemas.

Action of the Barons' Council.

A council of twenty-four barons was appointed to force the king to comply with his solemn oath, with the right of declaring war against the king if he infringed its provisions; and the charter was published throughout the kingdom, and was sworn to at every hundred-mote and at every town-mote by the king's order.

John's Impotent Rage.

King John, in an outburst of impotent rage, flung himself on the floor and gnawed like a wild beast at sticks and straw and anything that came within his reach, crying: "They have given me four and twenty over-kings!" But he promised the more readily, because he did not intend to perform. Before daybreak he had ridden from Windsor; and he lingered for months along the southern shores of England, the Cinque Ports and the Isle of Wight, while his agents were enlisting foreign troops in Continental Europe for the purpose of making a stand against the barons.

Archbishop Langton's Defiance of Pope Innocent III.

A special envoy from King John laid before Pope Innocent III. a copy of the Great Charter, which John declared had been wrenched from him by violence. The Pope, considering himself the real sovereign of England, declared that his rights had been encroached upon. He therefore annulled the Great Charter and excommunicated all who sustained it. Archbishop Langton courageously and patriotically refused to pronounce the papal bull of excommunication, and was suspended from the Primacy by Pope Innocent III. for his faithful exercise of the duties of his position as the champion of the liberties of England.

John's Civil War with His Barons.

Strengthened by the Pope's bull, and still more by an army of foreign soldiers, King John broke all his promises, starved Rochester into submission, and marched from south to north, laying waste the kingdom with fire and sword, as far as the borders of Scotland. From Berwick the king turned back to oppose his enemies in London, where fresh papal anathemas fell upon the barons and the city. But the burghers of London defied Pope Innocent III. in the following words: "The ordering of secular matters appertaineth not to the Pope." Simon Langton, the Primate's brother, caused the bells to be rung and mass to be celebrated as before.

London's Defiance of Pope Innocent III.

Scottish and French Aid to the Barons.

With the undisciplined militia of England, the barons were unable to cope with the king's trained foreign troops, and they sought the alliance of King Alexander II. of Scotland; but John compelled the Scottish monarch to stay in his own kingdom. In despair, the barons sought aid from France, offering the crown of England to Prince Louis, son of King Philip Augustus, who had married John's niece, Blanche of Castile, the granddaughter of Henry II. Prince Louis accepted the offer of the English barons, in spite of the Pope's excommunications, landed in England in May, 1216, with a large French army, took Rochester Castle, and made a triumphal entry into London amid the rejoicings of the citizens. The French prince seemed on the point of carrying everything before him, when King John, overcome by illness, shame and vexation, died suddenly at Newark, October 18, 1216, in the eighteenth year of his reign, leaving behind him the reputation of being the worst king that ever reigned over England.

Invasion of England by Prince Louis of France.

John's Death.

Two Benefits of His Reign.

John's wickedness was the source of two great benefits to the English people. The one was Magna Charta. The other was the loss of the French possessions of the Plantagenets, which was a piece of good fortune to England, because it forced her kings to confine their attention at home.

Henry III., A. D. 1216–1272.

Henry III., John's eldest son by his second wife, Isabella of Angoulême, succeeded his father as King of England and Duke of Aquitaine, being then a boy of ten years. He was crowned at Gloucester ten days

Regency of William, Earl of Pembroke.

after his father's death. William, Earl of Pembroke, a brave, able and upright man, who was made regent, or Protector of the Realm, during the youthful king's minority, exercised all the real power; and under his vigorous rule England was soon reduced to order. His first act was the renewal of Magna Charta, which John had so flagrantly and unscrupulously violated.

Prince Louis of France Deserted by the English Barons.

Prince Louis of France, whom the barons had invited to wrest the crown of England from King John, alarmed his English supporters by granting English lands to his French followers; and accordingly the barons deserted him and joined the party of young Henry III. The Earl of Pembroke, with a few hundred knights, defeated the French troops under Prince Louis in a battle in the streets of Lincoln, in 1217; and an English squadron defeated a superior French naval force off Dover. Finding the hearts of the English turning to their legitimate king, Prince Louis left England, never to return, renouncing all claim to the English crown.

Regencies of Hubert de Burgh and the Bishop of Winchester.

Unfortunately for England the good Earl of Pembroke died in 1219, and was succeeded in the regency by Hubert de Burgh, a brave and faithful officer, whose gallant defense of Dover Strait and Castle had chiefly contributed to the defeat of the French invasion. He was succeeded by the Bishop of Winchester, a native of Poitou, whose extortions had occasioned many of the miseries of John's reign. By his advice, the young king invited a multitude of Frenchmen from Poitou into England, assigning them all the important positions in the court, and lavishing honors and riches upon them; thus disgusting his English subjects.

Eleanor of Provence, the Queen of Henry III.

King Henry III. married Eleanor of Provence—a country at that time a part of Southern France, and celebrated for its wealth and luxury, as well as for the gay and brilliant genius of its inhabitants. The young queen brought with her to England a multitude of Provençal courtiers; and the marked indulgence shown them by the king increased the displeasure of the English.

Exactions of the Italian Clergy in England.

The English people found a greater grievance in the exactions of the Italian clergy, who obtained a larger revenue from England than did the king himself. The Pope claimed the entire income of all vacant livings; one-twentieth from those which were occupied; one-third from all that exceeded one hundred marks a year; and one-half from those held by non-residents.

The Pope's Claims as Over-lord of England.

The Pope, as over-lord of England, had filled many vacant livings with foreign priests, and even demanded a share in the government of the kingdom. The king and his regent were frequently at variance with each other, and both were at times arrayed against the Pope. There was, however, one thing in which the King of England and the

Pope were always agreed—the mutual effort to wring the last farthing from the poverty-stricken people.

The King's Son as King of Sicily.

The Pope worked upon the weakness of King Henry III. by bestowing the crown of Sicily upon his second son—a gift which only involved the king in an enormous debt, no less than in ridicule and disgrace. The Sicilian kingdom was one of the "fiefs of St. Peter," which the Pope claimed the right to grant to any one at his pleasure.

Richard of Cornwall as King of Germany.

The king's brother, Richard, Earl of Cornwall, likewise desired to play a part in the affairs of Continental Europe. His great wealth, derived from the tin mines of his earldom, induced the German princes to elect him their sovereign, as we have seen in the history of the German Empire; but he was never crowned Emperor at Rome, and therefore he gained nothing but the emply title of King of the Romans, in exchange for his vast treasures.

Henry III. and His Barons.

The extortions of King Henry III., and his subserviency to foreign favorites, disgusted the brave barons of England. In 1225 a great council was summoned to deliberate on the question of supplies to the crown. A grant was made on condition of a new confirmation of Magna Charta. Thereafter the practice prevailed of making a confirmation of the Great Charter, or a redress of grievances, the condition of voting money to the crown. Some of the dearest rights now enjoyed by the people of England were retained or acquired in this way, at various periods of English history.

Conditions of Money Grants.

Henry III. at His Majority.

In 1227, when Henry III. was twenty-two years old, he assumed the government himself. He began his full assumption of power by endeavoring to make Magna Charta subordinate to the royal prerogative, in the following declaration:

His Declaration.

"Whenever and wherever, and as often as it may be our pleasure, we may declare, interpret, enlarge or diminish the aforesaid statutes and their several parts by our own free will, and as to us shall seem expedient for the security of us and our land."

His Constant Misrule.

This declaration was the keynote of the policy of Henry III. for forty years; while the barons, distracted by feuds among themselves, stood idly by. The history of the entire period is only a dreary and monotonous record of royal recklessness and folly, of royal beggary and extortion. When in need of money, the king would swear on his honor as "a man, a Christian, a knight and a king," to preserve the provisions of the Great Charter inviolate; but the awful words had hardly died away among the arches of Westminster Hall, after his wants had been supplied, before he broke every solemn promise and trampled the provisions of the Great Charter under his feet in mere wantonness. Under the influence of the crown, even the courts of justice became but a legalized system of extortion and robbery, the judges

on the circuits compounding felonies and selling justice to the highest bidder.

Simon de Montfort, Earl of Leicester.

The chief of the king's French courtiers was Simon de Montfort, son of the Simon de Montfort who led the Crusaders who extinguished the unfortunate creed of the Albigenses, in the South of France, in blood a generation before. King Henry III. had elevated this Simon de Montfort to the dignity of Earl of Leicester, and had given him his own sister in marriage. But unlike the king's other French favorites, Simon de Montfort faithfully served the interests of the English people, who rewarded him with their enthusiastic devotion. He sustained Grosseteste of Lincoln—the best English bishop of that time—in his resistance to the Pope's unjust demands.

The King's Outrage.

In 1257 England suffered from a dreadful famine, in consequence of a failure of crops. This calamity brought matters to a crisis in 1258. The king's brother, Earl Richard of Cornwall, King of Germany, sent a supply of corn from Germany to England for the relief of the starving English people; but King Henry III. seized the corn and sold it for his own profit. This enraged the barons, who met in arms at Oxford and insisted upon a Council of Regency to be chosen, half by the king and half by themselves.

Action of the Barons.

Henry III. and the Council of Barons at Westminster.

King Henry III. being still in need of money, even after his outrageous transaction, he summoned the barons to a great council at Westminster. The barons obeyed the king's summons, but they came at the head of their men-at-arms. As Henry III. entered Westminster Hall and gazed upon the stern array of mail-clad barons, whose clanking swords alone broke the general silence, he inquired in sudden alarm: "Am I a prisoner?" The patriotic barons responded: "No, you are our sovereign; but your foreign favorites and your prodigality have brought misery upon the realm, and we demand that you confer authority upon those who are able and willing to redress the grievances of the public."

Provisions of Oxford.

As the king was powerless to resist, he consented to the demands of the barons, as specified in the *Provisions of Oxford*, providing for a council of twenty-four barons, one half to be appointed by the barons and the other half by himself, empowered to act in behalf of the realm. Parliament was ordered to meet three times every year, whether summoned by the king or not; and "twelve honest men" were to represent the commonalty.

Revolt of the Barons.

But the barons were soon divided, and many who sought honors and lands joined the royal party; but the more patriotic, with all the representatives of the English people, sustained Simon de Montfort, Earl of Leicester, who, with a reinforcement of fifteen thousand Londoners, achieved a brilliant victory over the king's army in the great battle of

Battle of Lewes.

Lewes, in Sussex, in which King Henry III. and his gallant son, Prince Edward, were taken prisoners, May 14, 1264.

Simon de Montfort and Origin of the House of Commons.

Earl Simon de Montfort, who was now the real head of the realm, summoned a Parliament in the king's name, inviting representatives of the people of England, to be composed of two knights from each shire, two citizens from each city, and two burgesses from each borough, to take their seats side by side with the bishops and the barons. This memorable Parliament convened at Westminster in January, 1265, and was the foundation of the future *House of Commons*, or popular branch of the English Parliament—the real beginning of true representative government. The House of Commons has ever since been the chief guardian of the rights and liberties of the people of England. John's tyranny gave rise to Magna Charta, the corner-stone of English constitutional liberty; while the oppressions of Henry III. led to the origin of the House of Commons, the bulwark and defense of that liberty. The two were wonderful landmarks in the progress of the Anglo-Saxon race.

Two Great Anglo-Saxon Landmarks.

Battle of Evesham and Death of Simon de Montfort.

But the English were soon called upon to mourn the death of their great leader—the founder of the House of Commons. Prince Edward, having escaped from captivity, speedily raised an army, with which he won a decisive victory in the great battle of Evesham, in Worcestershire, over the patriot forces under Earl Simon de Montfort and his son, both of whom were slain, August 4, 1265. This victory released the king from captivity; but no attempt was made to undo the great work of this illustrious patriot and statesman, whose name ranks with that of Archbishop Langton as an early champion of the English people's rights and liberties; and the right of the English people to representation in Parliament was permanently established.

His Work and Fame.

Prince Edward as a Crusader in Palestine.

As soon as the civil war between Henry III. and his barons was ended, Prince Edward, with a gallant array of barons, sailed for the Holy Land, to take part in the Eighth Crusade, A. D. 1270. The illustrious name of Plantagenet, and traditions of the chivalrous deeds of Richard the Lion-hearted, drew all the Christian forces of the East about the young prince, who won several victories over the Saracens, and struck such terror into their hearts that they sent an assassin to murder him. In trying to wrench a poisoned dagger from the assassin, Prince Edward was wounded in the hand during the scuffle; and this wound might have proven fatal had not his affectionate and devoted wife, Eleanor of Castile, who had accompanied her husband to Palestine, sucked the poison from his wound. After concluding a ten years' truce with the Saracens, Prince Edward sailed from Palestine on his return to England; and when he reached Sicily he heard of the death of his father, King Henry III., which occurred November 16, 1272.

His Escape from Assassination.

Revival of Learning and Philosophy.

During the dark and turbulent reign of Henry III. a steady light began to shine from the great University of Oxford, whose foundations were laid by Alfred the Great four centuries before; but the spirit of inquiry excited by the Crusades, with the new knowledge brought home from the East, had produced a great revival of zeal for the study of philosophy, law and ancient literature. In the great universities of the Middle Ages, thirty thousand scholars, traveling far over land and sea, were frequently assembled at one time about some celebrated teacher.

Roger Bacon, Father of English Science.

One of the most famous of these Schoolmen was Roger Bacon, whose wonderful mind was stored with all the learning of his time concerning the world of matter, no less than the mind and works of man. His lectures at Oxford were listened to by throngs of eager students, many of whom begged their daily bread, while others had followed their teacher's example in lavishing ample fortunes upon books and costly experiments, renouncing all ambition of honor or wealth, in search of the more precious treasures of wisdom. Roger Bacon was the father of English science. His physical researches anticipted many modern discoveries, the use of gunpowder in war among the rest.

His Condemnation and Imprisonment.

Bacon, who was a Franciscan monk, furnished an example of the peril of great learning in an ignorant age, as did St. Dunstan three centuries before him. Although he was admired and reverenced by his pupils, his superiors in the Church saw nothing in his geometrical lines and circles but charms to force the attendance of evil spirits, and could comprehend the Greek, Hebrew or Arabic sentences which he repeated in his studies as nothing else than the language of these evil spirits. He was condemned by the council of his own Franciscan order; and passed the last ten years of his life in a dreary dungeon, deprived of his cherished books, and even of pens and parchment.

The Mendicant Orders.

The *Mendicant Orders*, or *Begging Friars*—as the two monkish orders of the Franciscans and the Dominicans were called—bound themselves to absolute poverty and the service of the poor, owning nothing, living by daily alms, relieving distress, and acting as physicians and nurses as well as priests. During the civil war between Henry III. and his barons these mendicant monks were the steady friends of the people. They at first renounced learning, but soon had control of the University of Oxford, which became the firm foe of papal exactions and the stronghold of English freedom.

Constitutional Growth.

Thus ends a very important period of English history—the first great period of constitutional development, as evidenced in the granting of Magna Charta and the establishment of the House of Commons, both of these being the first great landmarks in the progress of the Anglo-Saxon race on the road to civil and political freedom.

SECTION III.—THE PLANTAGENETS AND WARS OF SCOTCH LIBERATION (A. D. 1272–1327).

Edward I., A. D. 1272–1307.

The chivalrous Edward I., who became King of England upon the death of his father, Henry III., in November, 1272, did not arrive in England on his return from the Holy Land until May, 1274. Edward I. was a true Englishman, and is ranked as the greatest of the Plantagenets.

His Abilities and Accomplishments.

He was tall and of majestic appearance, and was noted for his skill in archery and in the exercises of knighthood. He was a wise legislator, an able statesman, a vigorous ruler, a great warrior and a gallant knight. His efforts to reform the laws acquired for him the title of the *English Justinian*.

His Titles.

Because of the unusual length of his legs, his enemies in Berwick nicknamed him *Longshanks*.

His Character.

Edward I. was as much distinguished for his mental power as for his kingly generosity. Under his fostering care the administration of justice became more regular and secure in England. He was by nature a despot and doggedly tenacious of the royal prerogative, but he was just and even generous to his law-abiding subjects. To others he was severe and even cruel. His natural sternness was tempered by gentleness and affection in his domestic relations; but he would not shield any one from the consequences of his crime, not even his own son, who was once sent to prison like a common felon.

His Chief Ambition.

As Edward I. had no dominions in Continental Europe except Guienne, his great-grandmother's inheritance, his chief ambition was to unite the whole island of Great Britain under one government.

His Humbling of Llewellyn of Wales.

When Llewellyn, Prince of Wales, had refused to do the customary feudal homage to the English king, Edward I. sent an English army into Wales in 1277; and Llewellyn, deserted by most of his chieftains, was forced to sue for peace and to acknowledge Edward's sovereignty over Wales.

Welsh Revolt.

In 1282 the Welsh, incited by their patriotic bards, whose inspiring songs kept alive the love of liberty, rose in revolt against the English dominion.

Llewellyn's Defeat and Death.

Edward I. again led an irresistible English army into Wales, and Llewellyn was soon defeated and slain in a battle; whereupon the Welsh chieftains quietly submitted, and the principality of Wales was formally annexed to the realm of England, A. D. 1282.

English Conquest of Wales.

Irritated at the determined resistance of the Welsh, King Edward I. caused Llewellyn's brother David and the Welsh bards to be massacred.

The First English Prince of Wales.

Edward I. wisely gave the Welsh people the English system of courts and laws, and for a century they remained at peace, with a single exception. In a conference with the Welsh chiefs at Caernarvon, Edward I. promised to give them a prince born in their own coun-

try, a prince who could not speak a word of French or English; and then introduced his infant son Edward, who was born in Caernarvon Castle the day before, as the prince whom he meant. By the death of his elder brother, little Edward became the heir to the English crown; and ever since that time the eldest son of the British sovereign has been styled *Prince of Wales.*

Restoration of Order in England.

After thus effecting the conquest of Wales, which Saxons and Normans for eight centuries had failed to subdue, King Edward I. returned to England and devoted himself to the administration of government and the restoration of public order. His strong hand soon put an end to the robberies which had become disgracefully frequent during his father's weak reign.

Execution and Banishment of the Jews.

Edward's chief severity was visited upon the Jews. A common crime in that turbulent and corrupt age was "clipping the coin"; and the Jews were accused of having a principal share in that transaction. Two hundred and eighty Jews were hanged in London alone. Eight years later, A. D. 1292, all the Jews in England were ordered to be cast into prison, and were kept there until they had paid a heavy ransom. Finally, for no apparent cause, the entire Hebrew population of England, more than sixteen thousand in number, were forced to leave the kingdom. They were permitted to take their money and jewels; but these treasures increased their perils, as very many were murdered by sailors and others in their passage over the seas. In those ages of bigotry a crime against a Jew was regarded by many as no crime at all. But Edward I. was more just, and ordered the murderers to be hanged whenever they could be convicted.

The Crown of Scotland and the Maid of Norway.

Edward's next great object was the union of England and Scotland under one dominion. King Alexander III. of Scotland, whose wife was Edward's sister, died in 1286, leaving the Scottish crown to his only surviving descendant, his little granddaughter, Margaret, daughter of King Erik II. of Norway, and grandniece of the King of England. This princess, then three years old, and known as the *Maid of Norway*, was soon afterward betrothed to Edward's son, Edward the Prince of Wales. On her voyage from Norway to Scotland, the princess died on one of the Orkneys, from the fatigue of the rough voyage; and thus the plan for uniting England and Scotland under one sovereign was for the time frustrated, and the way opened for three centuries of bitter strife between the two kingdoms.

Rival Scottish Claimants.

Among the Scots many rival competitors now appeared for the crown of Scotland, the chief of whom were John Baliol, Lord of Galloway; Robert Bruce, Lord of Annandale; and John Hastings, Lord of Abergavenny—all of whom were of Norman descent. The Scottish Parliament, unable to choose among the competitors, referred the de-

cision to the King of England as umpire. At the head of a large English army, Edward I. met the Scottish Parliament and all the rival claimants at Norham, on the Tweed, May 10, 1291; and having them in his power, he declared that he, not as an umpire freely chosen, but as lord-paramount of Scotland, should appoint a vassal monarch for that kingdom. This suzerainty had been exercised by Henry II. after the capture of King William the Lion of Scotland at Alnwick Castle in 1174, but had been freely surrendered by Richard the Lion-hearted in 1190, for himself and his successors.

Claim of Edward I. as Lord-paramount of Scotland.

Being in no condition to resist Edward's claims, the Scots had no alternative than to submit; and Edward I. decided in favor of the claims of John Baliol to the crown of Scotland, with the understanding that he should do feudal homage to the King of England for his crown. Baliol was King of Scotland in little else than in name. On trifling pretexts he was six times summoned to London to appear before the English Parliament. Edward's apparent design was to vex Baliol into rebellion, and then to confiscate his kingdom as a punishment.

His Decision in Favor of John Baliol as Vassal King of Scotland.

When Edward I. became involved in a war with King Philip the Fair of France, Baliol formed an alliance with the French monarch, thus causing a furious war between England and Scotland. Forty thousand Scots made a sudden raid across the border into Cumberland. Edward I. was prepared for them, and repulsed them at Carlisle; after which he drove them into Berwick, which he besieged by land and sea and finally captured. Edward entered the town at the head of his assaulting column, and a frightful slaughter of two days ended only when every inhabitant of the town had been slain. The English king then advanced into Scotland, and defeated Baliol in the battle of Dunbar, A. D. 1296. Roxburgh, Jedburgh and Dumbarton received English garrisons. Edinburgh was besieged, and Stirling was taken.

War between England and Scotland.

Capture and Massacre of Berwick.

Battle of Dunbar.

Finally at Montrose Abbey, in 1296, Baliol appeared in penitential garments before the Bishop of Durham, confessed his sins against his sovereign lord, King Edward I., and surrendered the Scottish crown into his hands. The English king then took possession of Scotland as a forfeited fief. He was acknowledged King of Scotland by the Scottish Parliament, and filled the offices in Scotland with Englishmen. Edward I. carried to London the Scottish crown, scepter, and the sacred stone at Scone, called the *Stone of Destiny*, on which the Scottish kings had been crowned for centuries. There was a Scottish tradition that this sacred stone was the pillow of stone used by the patriarch Jacob at Bethel, and it was popularly believed that the Scots would reign wherever that stone might be. Edward I. had the stone placed in Westminster Abbey, then just completed, and put beneath the Coronation Chair, in which all the Kings of England are crowned.

Baliol's Surrender of the Scottish Crown.

Edward's First Conquest of Scotland.

The Stone of Destiny.

The Romantic Border Wars.

The fierce and bloody wars between England and Scotland which began in the reign of Edward I. lasted two centuries, and desolated the border lands of the two kingdoms throughout successive reigns. "The earlier ballad and legend, wild and weird like the Scotch character itself, and the later song and tale with their warp of fact and woof of fiction, have involved the whole story of the struggle between England and Scotland in the fascinations of romance."

Alliance of France and Scotland.

The war which had arisen between England and France in the meantime was caused by a quarrel between some English and French sailors. This struggle greatly encouraged the Scots and led to that close alliance which united France and Scotland in common enmity to England for centuries.

Edward I as a Vassal of Philip the Fair of France for Guienne.

As Duke of Guienne, King Edward I. was a vassal of the King of France, who delighted to treat him as Edward I. had treated John Baliol. King Philip the Fair summoned Edward I. to appear at Paris to answer for the misconduct of his subjects. The King of England appeared by his brother, Edmund Plantagenet, Earl of Lancaster, who acted as his proxy. The French king demanded that Aquitaine should, as a mere matter of form, be given into his hands until the matter could be settled; but when he had once obtained possession of the chief towns of Guienne he declared that duchy annexed to the French crown as a forfeited fief of the English king. Edward I. took the field to uphold his rights, and was supported by the Duke of Brittany, the Count of Flanders and Adolf of Nassau, King of Germany. The war commenced in Gascony in 1294, and lasted two years, with the general advantage on the side of the French; Edward I. being hampered by his war with Scotland.

Edward's Allies.

French Success.

Principle of No Taxation without Representation Established in England.

The wars of Edward I. in Continental Europe, though disastrous to the English, afforded the English people an opportunity to secure their rights through the king's necessities. Edward's subjects well knew that by holding the purse-strings of the nation they had a check upon their sovereign. In 1297 Edward's demand for money was answered by a demand on the part of the barons and the representatives of the people for the renewal of the Great Charter, with an additional clause, "that no tallage or aid should be levied without the assent of the peers spiritual and temporal, and the *knights, burgesses and other freemen in Parliament assembled.*" Edward I. very reluctantly signed this document, which made it forever illegal for a King of England to levy any tax upon his subjects without their own consent, through their legally elected representatives. Parliament willingly voted a large subsidy to Edward I. as the price of this concession.

Edward I. and His Parliaments.

At one time, under the pressure of want, Edward I. levied money in violation of the Great Charter; but, convinced of his error, he acknowl-

edged it with tears in his eyes, in the presence of Parliament, and repented. In his reign Parliaments became more regular, and from this time met permanently at Westminster; but the Commons did not yet have any voice in matters of legislation, simply voting money.

His Wise Laws.

Among the wise laws of Edward I. was one basing the defense of the kingdom more thoroughly than ever on an armed militia, ever at the king's immediate call. Another law insured the freedom of elections against menace or forcible interference. Another forbade judges and officers to receive rewards for official services, lawyers to use deceit to beguile the court, persons to utter slanders, or jurors to render a false verdict. Another required the gates of walled towns to be kept closed from sunset to sunrise, and a watch to be set. Another required every man to cut away the bushes and undergrowth on his own land, two hundred feet on each side of the principal roads, to render an ambush by highwaymen difficult. A statute for London forbade armed men to appear in the streets, or taverns to sell ale or beer, after Curfew.

Courts of Justice.

Edward I. greatly improved the courts, rendering the administration of justice more certain and equal. The ecclesiastical courts were confined to strictly spiritual matters. The county court was undisturbed; but its business was restricted, and the people in the rural districts better accommodated, by the appointment of *Justices of the Peace* as local magistrates. From the Court of Appeal sprang the Court of Chancery, with the Chancellor at the head—a court governed by the principles of equity, not by common law, and designed to have jurisdiction when the administration of exact justice was prevented by the technicalities of law and by the inability of the other courts to vary from the established modes of procedure.

Justices of the Peace.

Court of Chancery.

Peace with France.

A treaty of peace was finally made between England and France in June, 1299. In accordance with this treaty, Edward I. married Marguerite, the eldest sister of King Philip the Fair; his first wife, Eleanor of Castile, having died in the meantime; and his son Edward, the Prince of Wales, was affianced to the French king's daughter Isabella, then only six years old. This last marriage was the source of centuries of war between England and France. By this treaty the King of England abandoned his ally, the Count of Flanders; while the King of France left his allies, the Scots, to the sanguinary vengeance of Edward I.

Royal Intermarriages.

Revolt of the Scots under William Wallace.

Edward's first conquest of Scotland was of short duration. The Scots found a heroic champion in the valiant patriot, William Wallace, a gallant knight, a man of no high rank, but distinguished by extraordinary patience and determination, as well as by his remarkable strength. The great nobles of Scotland mostly held aloof from the

struggle, or gave Wallace a very feeble support; but the common people considered him their hero and deliverer.

The Scottish Nobles and the Highlanders.

The great nobles of Scotland, like those of England, were mainly of Norman descent, and cared very little for the country or the people where their estates lay. John Baliol did homage to King Edward I. for lands in France and England, as well as for Scotland; and the real Scots of the Highlands preferred the King of England to either John Baliol or Robert Bruce.

Battle of Stirling.

Wallace secretly collected an army of stalwart peasants and a band of desperate outlaws, and attacked and defeated the English under Earl Warrenne, Edward's governor of Scotland, with great slaughter at Stirling, in September, 1297. Wallace took castle after castle, and

Wallace's Liberation of Scotland.

liberated all Scotland from English rule; after which he pushed his victorious arms across the border into England, and ravaged Cumberland and Northumberland. His countrymen chose him for their ruler, with the modest title of *Guardian of the Realm of Scotland.*

Invasion of Scotland by Edward I.

The warlike Edward I., who had been in Continental Europe when this revolt of the Scots broke out, now returned to England with a great train of knights and archers, to which he added the forces of England, Ireland and Wales. Enraged at the new outbreak of Scottish patriotism, Edward I. led his forces into Scotland and annihilated

Battle of Falkirk.

the Scottish army under Wallace at Falkirk, July 22, 1298; the valiant Scottish patriot being forsaken by the proud Scottish lords, who scorned to serve under a leader of humble birth.

Revolt of the Scots under John Comyn.

The victorious King of England was soon obliged to retire for want of food; and in 1303 the Scots were again in the field, under the leadership of John Comyn of Badenoch, son-in-law of John Baliol. This time Edward I. was invincible. A formidable English fleet laden with

Edward's Second Conquest of Scotland.

provisions sailed along the coast, almost abreast of Edward's land force. The English king marched in triumph through Scotland from south to north, through Lowlands and Highlands, reducing all the castles and forcing all the Scottish chiefs to do him feudal homage.

Betrayal of William Wallace to Edward I.

In the meantime the valiant Wallace waged a relentless war against the English for seven years, disdaining to accept the mercy of his country's conqueror. Outlawed and with a price set upon his head, and hiding in the mountains, he was at last basely betrayed into Edward's power by a Scottish noble; and, with a cruelty disgraceful to the memory of Edward I., the patriot leader was taken in chains to

His Execution in London.

London, where he was tried as a traitor, with a crown of oak leaves upon his head, to indicate that he was king of outlaws. He was condemned to death for treason, simply because he defended the independence of his native land with indomitable heroism, and was hanged at Tyburn, August 24, 1305. His head, crowned in mockery with a cir-

clet of laurel, was placed on London Bridge. His countrymen considered him a martyr, and he has ever since been honored as the national hero of Scotland.

Effect of Wallace's Martyrdom.

The story of Wallace's martyrdom sped through Scotland, from Lowland moor to Highland glen, from peasant cot to lordly castle; and the dead Wallace achieved what the living Wallace had failed to accomplish. Scottish jealousies ceased; and the fierce resentment that united all Scottish hearts in the stern resolve to avenge the valiant patriot's cruel death also united them in the nobler resolve to liberate their country from the hated English yoke, and the struggle was renewed with redoubled vigor.

Robert Bruce and John Comyn.

Robert Bruce, Earl of Carrick—grandson of the Robert Bruce who had been a competitor with John Baliol for the Scottish crown in 1292—lived at Edward's court, petted and favored, but closely watched. He conceived the design of freeing his country from English rule, and communicated his plans to his rival, John Comyn of Badenoch, John Baliol's son-in-law. Comyn at first agreed to Bruce's plans, but finally betrayed his design to the English king. A friend of Bruce at the English court, hearing of his danger and not daring to communicate with him personally, sent him a purse of gold and a pair of spurs; and the sagacious Bruce, rightly interpreting the friendly warning, secretly hastened to Scotland without a moment's delay. As the ground was then covered with snow, he had the precaution to order his horse to be shod with the shoes reversed, that he might deceive those who should track his path over the open fields and cross-roads through which he proposed to travel.

Bruce's Escape from London.

His Arrival in Scotland.

In a few days Bruce reached Scotland; and at Dumfries, in Annandale, the chief seat of his family interest, he fortunately found many of the Scottish nobility assembled, the traitor Comyn being among them. They were surprised at Bruce's unexpected arrival among them, and readily agreed to sustain him in his efforts for the deliverance of Scotland, with the exception of Comyn, who strenuously sought to induce the Scottish nobles to submit to English rule. To punish him for his treachery, and to prevent him from doing any mischief in future, Bruce drew his dagger and stabbed Comyn where he stood, before the high altar of the church at Dumfries.

He Kills the Traitor John Comyn.

His Coronation as King of Scotland

Bruce then proceeded to Scone, and was crowned King of Scotland by the Bishop of St. Andrews, in the abbey which had been the scene of the coronation of so many Scottish kings; after which he published a defiance to the King of England, no longer as Robert Bruce of Annandale, but as King Robert I. of Scotland. The Scots rose bravely at the call of their second champion, and in about four months all the clans were in arms under Bruce's standard, resolved to recover their

Scottish Revolt.

country's independence; and the English garrisons were driven from all but a few of the strongest castles.

Solemn Vow of Edward I.

Edward I. was greatly enraged when he heard of Bruce's proceedings in Scotland. He saw that his second conquest of Scotland was no more permanent than the first had been, and that he must begin the task anew. Bowed with years, but still resolute, he took the field against the Scots for the third time. Before starting on his expedition to Scotland, he assembled all his barons in Westminster Abbey, and took a solemn oath by two live swans, adorned with bells of gold, that he would invade Scotland and never return until he had completely subjugated that country. He kept his vow, but not in the way he intended. He did not subdue Scotland, and he never returned.

Prince Edward's Victories in Scotland.

In the meantime Edward's son Edward, Prince of Wales, had advanced into Scotland and opened the campaign with such cruel devastations that his father was obliged to stop him. Bruce and his followers were driven about from place to place by Edward's advance troops under Sir Aymer de Valence, who defeated Bruce at Methven, in Perthshire, and forced him to take refuge in the Hebrides.

Death of Edward I.

King Edward I., who was then in Cumberland with an army of a hundred thousand men, sinking under exertion and excitement, was overcome by illness near Carlisle, and died at Burgh-on-the-Sands, July 7, 1307, in the sixty-ninth year of his age, just as his army came in sight of the blue hills of Scotland. With his dying breath he enjoined his son to prosecute the war until he had completely conquered Scotland, and even desired that his dead body should be carried at the head of the invading army as it marched into that country.

His Dying Injunction.

Edward II., A. D. 1307–1327.

Edward II., the son and successor of Edward I., was twenty-two years of age when he became King of England in 1307. His first act was to disobey his father's dying injunction to prosecute the war for the conquest of Scotland. He had advanced but a little way into Scotland when he ordered a retreat, abandoned the enterprise and disbanded his army; thus disgusting his barons.

His Retreat from Scotland.

His Weak Character.

Edward II. was a weak prince, the slave of worthless favorites, and entirely lacked the knightly qualities which so distinguished his illustrious father. He was destitute of vigor or virtue sufficient to be just to himself, or to enforce justice among his subjects. His only aim was indulgence in sensual pleasures. The barons, seeing that he was too weak to hold the reins of government as firmly as his renowned father had done, soon began to entertain little respect for the royal authority, and to practice every form of insolence with the utmost impunity.

Edward II. also violated another promise which he had made to his father. In his early youth his father had assigned him for a compan-

ion a Gascon knight of good family, named Piers Gaveston. This Frenchman was a man of elegant manners and many accomplishments, and excelled in all the knightly and courtly graces of the time; but his character was wholly dissolute, and he exercised a most corrupting influence over the young prince, leading him into such wild and lawless courses that Edward I. banished Gaveston from England, after vainly striving to check his son's frivolous career. Edward I., on his deathbed, made his son swear that he would never recall Gaveston; but no sooner had Edward II. ascended the English throne than he summoned Gaveston back to England and loaded him with honors, wealth and estates—a proceeding which greatly offended the English barons, who resented the inferior birth and the haughty and insolent bearing of the king's French favorite.

Edward II. and Piers Gaveston.

Gaveston's Banishment and Recall.

Barons Oppose Gaveston.

Early in 1308 King Edward II. went to France and married the Princess Isabella, the daughter of King Philip the Fair, to whom he had been affianced since 1299. He left Gaveston in charge of the kingdom during his absence—an act which excited the disaffection of the barons to the highest degree. The new queen, who desired to rule her husband herself, became jealous of Gaveston's influence, and joined the English barons against the king's insolent French favorite.

Marriage of Edward II. with Isabella of France.

Queen and Barons against Gaveston.

Soon after the king's coronation the barons demanded the banishment of the haughty Gaveston. Edward II. consented to this demand with great reluctance; but, instead of sending the favorite out of the English dominions entirely, the king turned his punishment into a promotion by appointing him Lord Lieutenant of Ireland, going with him as far as Bristol, and bestowing upon him new estates in England and Gascony. Gaveston was a brave and energetic man, and his administration in Ireland was, on the whole, creditable.

Gaveston, Lord Lieutenant of Ireland.

Anxious for the recall of his favorite, King Edward II. softened the hostility of the barons by making concessions to them, and obtained from the Pope a dispensation absolving Gaveston from the oath he had taken never to return to England; and the favorite was recalled. Gaveston was just as arrogant and insolent as ever, and continued the same course as before, thus exciting a fresh outbreak of the barons.

Gaveston's Recall and Continued Insolence.

In 1310 the barons forced the weak king to relinquish the royal authority for one year into the hands of a committee of twelve barons, styled *Ordainers*, who instituted a series of measures, some of which were useful and praiseworthy, because they diminished the arbitrary powers of the crown. The Ordainers banished Gaveston from England, though the king begged piteously that he might be permitted to remain. The exiled favorite retired to Flanders, and in less than a year Edward II. removed the court to York and recalled the insolent Gaveston.

The Ordainers.

Gaveston's Exile and Recall.

Rebellion of the Barons.

The barons now determined to get rid of the king's insolent favorite forever. They took up arms, under the leadership of the king's cousin, Thomas Plantagenet, Earl of Lancaster, the most powerful baron in England. The rebel barons captured Scarborough Castle, in which Gaveston had taken refuge. Gaveston was conducted to Warwick Castle, where he was beheaded without trial, by order of his enemies, June 19, 1312. Edward II. was furious with rage at the death of his favorite, and swore vengeance on all who had been concerned in the murder; but he lacked the energy to hold a purpose requiring such efforts, and soon agreed to a reconciliation with the barons, thus restoring tranquillity to the kingdom.

Gaveston's Overthrow and Decapitation.

Rage of Edward II.

Scottish Successes.

In the meantime, while Edward II. and his barons were engaged in their petty quarrels, the Scots, under King Robert Bruce, were regaining their national independence. The Scots recovered Linlithgow, Roxburgh, Edinburgh and Perth in succession. The accounts of the sieges of castles held by English garrisons are full of romantic interest. Linlithgow was taken very much like ancient Troy was captured by the Greeks. A Scottish peasant had been in the habit of supplying the English garrison with forage. One day he came with a load of hay in which were concealed Scottish soldiers. After crossing the drawbridge he placed his load of hay in such a position that the gates could not be shut. The concealed soldiers suddenly made their appearance, and held the gates until reinforcements lying in ambush came up, when the garrison was overpowered.

Scottish Capture of Linlithgow by Stratagem.

Siege of Stirling Castle by Edward Bruce.

The only fortress in Scotland that still held out for the English king was Stirling Castle, which was vigorously besieged by Edward Bruce, King Robert's brother. The governor of the castle, reduced to desperate straits by want of provisions, agreed to surrender on the day of the Feast of St. John the Baptist, if not relieved by the English in the meantime. Edward II., roused from his lethargy, speedily collected an army which the Scottish writers estimated at a hundred thousand men, and hastily marched to the relief of Stirling Castle.

Edward II. Marches to Its Relief.

Battle of Bannockburn.

Edward II. was confronted by thirty thousand Scots under King Robert Bruce at Bannockburn, two miles from Stirling, June 24, 1314. The English king attacked the Scots, but suffered the most disastrous defeat in the history of English warfare, considering the disparity of the forces engaged—the greatest reverse which the English had sustained since the battle of Hastings. The English army fled from the field in utter dismay; and King Edward II. himself fled in hot haste to Dunbar, closely pursued by some Scottish knights, and from that town he returned to England by sea. The English camp, with all its treasures and supplies, fell into the possession of the victorious Scots, while the panic-stricken English soldiers were slaughtered without mercy.

Scotland's Independence.

The battle of Bannockburn secured the independence of Scotland, and King Robert Bruce retaliated by invading England and ravaging Cumberland and Northumberland.

Edward Bruce's Invasion of Ireland.

Encouraged by his success in Scotland, King Robert Bruce made an effort to wrest Ireland from the English, sending his brother Edward into that island with a Scottish army to accept the Irish crown, which had been offered to him by the O'Neil and other chiefs of Ulster. Edward Bruce landed in Ulster in 1315 and achieved some successes, after which he was crowned King of Ireland at Carrickfergus. The English and their Irish supporters rallied for a supreme effort, and inflicted a crushing defeat upon Edward Bruce at Athenree, August 10, 1316. Edward Bruce was defeated and slain in the battle of Dundalk in 1318, thus ending this effort to liberate Ireland from the English dominion.

Battles of Athenree and Dundalk.

Edward II. and Hugh Spenser and His Father.

In the meantime King Edward II. had found a new favorite, Hugh Spenser, a young Welsh gentleman of noble birth, who was a man very much like Gaveston; but his father, whom the king also took into his favor, was deservedly honored for his wisdom and valor, his fidelity in many high offices, his integrity and pure life. The elder Spenser was a man of advanced age, and was well adapted to be the counselor to such a king as Edward II.

Rebellion and Overthrow of the Barons.

The king's favoritism for the two Spensers, father and son, provoked another outbreak of the barons, who again took up arms under the Earls of Hereford and Lancaster. The rebellious barons were defeated at Boroughbridge. The Earl of Hereford was slain, and the Earl of Lancaster was taken prisoner and beheaded. Roger Mortimer, one of the same party, who was also the queen's paramour, was likewise taken prisoner, and was condemned to death; but his sentence was afterwards commuted to imprisonment in the Tower.

The Queen's Paramour, Roger Mortimer.

Queen Isabella and Roger Mortimer in France.

King Charles the Fair of France, brother-in-law of Edward II., took advantage of the domestic troubles of England, to make an effort to obtain possession of the English monarch's territories in France; and in 1325 Edward II. sent his wife Isabella to Paris to arrange matters with her brother. Queen Isabella was soon joined in France by her young son Edward, Prince of Wales, and also by her lover, Roger Mortimer, who had escaped from the Tower. Isabella had no love for her husband, her affections being wholly centered on Mortimer; and, instead of endeavoring to bring about a peace between her brother and her husband, she plotted for her husband's overthrow, being aided by her brother with men and money. She affianced her son to the Princess Philippa, daughter of Count William of Hainault.

Their Plots with King Charles the Fair against Edward II.

Rebellion of the Queen and the Barons.

In 1326 Queen Isabella returned to England, landing in Suffolk with an army consisting mainly of foreigners. She at once raised the standard of revolt against her husband, ostensibly to overthrow the Spensers,

but really to acquire the supreme power for herself and Mortimer. She was joined by the discontented barons, and was hailed as a deliverer by all classes, so that she soon had an overwhelming force at her command.

Flight of Edward II. from London.

King Edward II., deserted and helpless, was obliged to flee from London. He embarked for the Isle of Lundy, off Bristol Channel; but was driven upon the coast of Wales, landing at Swansea. The queen's troops took Bristol; and the elder Spenser, an old man of ninety, who commanded there, was barbarously put to death. King Edward II. and Hugh Spenser were captured in Glamorganshire. Hugh Spenser was crowned with nettles and hanged, while the king was imprisoned in Kenilworth Castle.

Execution of the Spensers.

Regency of Prince Edward.

In the meantime Edward, Prince of Wales, a boy of fourteen years, had been made regent by his mother and Mortimer; but, as the young prince possessed no authority, the kingdom was in a deplorable condition. The mobs of London and other cities committed robberies and murders with impunity, and were called *Riflers*.

The Riflers.

Deposition of Edward II. by Parliament.

In 1327 a Parliament summoned by the queen assembled at Westminster, revived the constitutional usage of the earlier English freedom and asserted the right of Parliament to depose the king, by declaring Edward II. unworthy to rule and proclaiming his son Edward king by acclamation. Queen Isabella, the real author of her husband's misery, burst into a flood of hypocritical tears at this announcement: and her son Edward, Prince of Wales, was so affected by her feigned sorrow that he swore that he would never reign in his father's life-time without his consent.

The Queen's Hypocrisy.

Forced Abdication of Edward II.

To satisfy the pretended scruples of the queen, Parliament sent a deputation to Kenilworth Castle to procure a formal abdication of the English crown from the dethroned king in favor of his son. As soon as the discrowned sovereign saw the deputies he fainted; and when he recovered and was informed of their errand he told them that he was in their power and must submit to their will. Sir William Trussel, in the name of the people of England, then renounced all fealty to "Edward of Caernarvon," so styled from the place of his birth, in Wales; and Sir Francis Blount, High Steward, broke his staff and declared all the king's officers discharged from his service.

Cruelties and Indignities to the Dethroned King.

Thus ended the reign of Edward II., which had lasted twenty years (A. D. 1307–1327); but his own miseries were not yet ended. The dethroned king was committed to the custody of some wretches, who did all in their power to kill him by ill usage. They hurried him like a common felon from castle to castle in the middle of the night, only half clothed. One day for sport they ordered him to be shaved in the open fields, with water out of a dirty ditch, and refused to let him have any other. The unhappy monarch shed tears at this treatment; and,

while the tears were trickling down his cheeks, he said, with a smile of grief: "Here is clean warm water, whether you will or no."

His Cruel Murder in Berkeley Castle.

But this method of killing the deposed king proved too slow, and compassion for his sufferings was working a reaction in his favor among the people. Finally he was lodged in Berkeley Castle, which he never left alive. By Mortimer's orders the unfortunate Edward II. was horribly murdered one autumn night, the gloomy walls of Berkeley Castle resounding with the most heart-rending shrieks, September 21, 1327; and the next day the distorted features of the dead king told only too well the story of his cruel murder, in the forty-third year of his age.

SECTION IV.—THE PLANTAGENETS AND HUNDRED YEARS' WAR WITH FRANCE (A. D. 1327–1455).

Edward III., A.D. 1327–1377.

His Greatness.

The chivalrous Edward III., the son and successor of Edward II., became a powerful monarch; and his reign of fifty years was one of the longest and most brilliant in the annals of England. Unlike his father, he was an energetic and vigorous sovereign, and was one of the greatest of the Plantagenets. He was an able statesman, a great warrior and a gallant knight.

Council of Regency.

Isabella and Roger Mortimer.

As Edward III. was only fourteen years of age when he became King of England in 1327, a Council of Regency composed of twelve of the principal lords was appointed to administer the government during the king's minority; but the real power was exercised by his mother Isabella and her paramour, Roger Mortimer, who controlled the Council of Regency. Mortimer soon assumed the title of Earl of March.

Scottish Invasion

The Scots under James, Earl of Douglas, continued their raids across the border, and young King Edward III. led an English army against them; but the light-armed and well-mounted Scots skilfully avoided battles and eluded pursuit, and the young English king was obliged to retire for want of supplies. Finally, England acknowledged the independence of Scotland by the Treaty of Northampton, in March, 1328; and a sister of King Edward III. was betrothed to David Bruce, the son and heir of King Robert I.

Treaty of Northampton.

Mortimer's Ambition and Arrogance.

Mortimer, who felt sure of his power, conducted himself with such insolence and such reckless disregard of the rights of others that he soon raised a determined opposition to his supremacy. His infamous course in causing the king's uncle, the Duke of Kent, to be executed, and the Earl of Lancaster to be imprisoned, aggravated the hostility with which he was threatened; and finally the young king's eyes were opened to the ambitious schemes of his mother's arrogant favorite.

Edward III., as Ruler.

When Edward III. was eighteen years of age he resolved to take the government into his own hands and be his own master. Isabella and Mortimer then occupied Nottingham Castle. Every night the keys of the castle gates were brought to the suspicious queen-mother's bedside, while guards were stationed at every avenue of approach. Under the guidance of the governor of the castle, a small but trusty band of the young king's friends entered the castle at night, through a subterranean passage, and, being joined by King Edward III. himself, took the garrison utterly by surprise. Mortimer was seized in Isabella's presence and borne away to prison; the queen-mother piteously entreating her son to "spare the gentle Mortimer."

Isabella and Mortimer.

Mortimer's Imprisonment.

Mortimer's Condemnation and Execution.

Thenceforth Edward III. was king in fact as well as in name. He at once summoned a Parliament, before whom Mortimer was brought, charged with various offences and crimes, one of which was the murder of King Edward II. He was pronounced guilty, and was hanged on an elm at Tyburn, in 1330; and the king's mother was consigned to life-long imprisonment in Castle Rising, where she lingered in hopeless captivity for the remaining twenty-seven years of her life, visited once a year by her son.

Isabella's Lifelong Imprisonment.

Flemish Weavers in England.

In 1331 King Edward III. settled colonies of Flemish weavers in the counties of Norfolk, Suffolk and Essex, thus laying the foundation of one of England's greatest industries. These foreign settlers introduced into England the manufacture of the finest woolen cloths. The wool of England was then the finest in Europe, and was the principal article of export from the kingdom. The English people, fearing that the establishment of home manufactures would ruin their commerce, treated the Flemish immigrants with such hostility that King Edward III. was put to much trouble to protect them.

English Wool Manufacture.

Restoration of Law and Order.

England was now in terrible disorder. Robbery and all manner of violence had increased without check, under the weakness of Edward II. and the crimes of Isabella. Edward III. devoted himself with vigor and energy to the restoration of order and justice, and put down many gangs of robbers by his own personal presence. By a series of wise and heroic measures he reëstablished the royal power and the supremacy of the law throughout the kingdom.

Civil War in Scotland between David Bruce and Edward Baliol.

Edward III. next turned his attention to Scotland. King Robert Bruce died in 1329, and the Scottish crown passed to his son David, then only seven years old. Scottish history repeated itself in this instance. Edward Baliol, son of John Baliol, who figured so prominently in the reign of Edward I., now asserted his right to the Scottish throne, as his father had done before him. After defeating the forces of David Bruce, near Perth, in 1332, Edward Baliol seized the crown of Scotland; and David Bruce fled to France. To gain the support of King

Baliol's Vassalage to Edward III.

Edward III., Edward Baliol, like his father before him, agreed to reign as a vassal of the English crown. The indignant Scots flew to arms and drove him from the country in 1333.

Baliol Aided by Edward III.

The exiled Edward Baliol sought refuge in England; and, after a show of reluctance because of the treaty still in force between England and Scotland, Edward III. declared in Baliol's favor, led a large army into Scotland, and defeated the Scots in the great battle of Halidon Hill, in 1333, thus restoring Edward Baliol to the Scottish throne and compelling David Bruce to take refuge in France a second time. Edward Baliol ceded the fortresses of Berwick, Dunbar and Edinburgh, and all the south-eastern counties of Scotland, to England; while he and many of the Scottish lords swore fealty to Edward III.

Battle of Halidon Hill.

Baliol's Cessions to England.

Scottish Resistance to Baliol and Edward III.

The very name of Baliol was repugnant to the Scots, and after the withdrawal of the English army he was driven from Scotland a second time. The Scots were encouraged and aided by France, and they made Sir Andrew Murray regent for David Bruce, who was still in France. The King of England again marched into Scotland to restore Edward Baliol to the throne of that kingdom; and the Scots, unable to cope with Edward III. in the Lowlands, retreated into the Highlands, where they kept alive their hostility to the usurper Baliol and his master, the English king.

Hostility between Edward III. and Philip VI. of France.

The cause of David Bruce had been warmly supported by King Philip VI. of France, the first of the Valois branch of the royal race of Capet. This conduct of the King of France deeply offended King Edward III., who retaliated by giving a cordial reception to the French king's inveterate enemy, Count Robert of Artois, who fled to England in 1333. King Philip VI. endeavored to force Edward III. to send the Count of Artois away, and also committed many aggressions upon Edward's duchy of Guienne, although the English king had consented to do homage to the King of France for that province.

Insolent Demand of Philip VI. of France.

In 1336 the French king brought matters to a crisis by an insolent demand that the English monarch should give up the Count of Artois, threatening the confiscation of his duchy of Guienne in case of refusal. Edward III. instantly began preparations for war; and, acting on the advice of Jacques van Artevelde, the famous brewer of Ghent and the leader of the Flemings, he claimed the French crown because his mother Isabella was a daughter of Philip the Fair, and assumed the title of King of France; but his pretensions were invalidated by the Salic Law, which prevailed in France, and which prevented females from inheriting the French crown.

Edward III. Claims the French Crown.

Basis of His Claim.

The basis of the claim of Edward III. to the crown of France will be best seen in the following statement: Philip the Fair's three sons, who reigned over France in succession, left only female issue; while his

daughter Isabella, who was excluded from the French throne by the Salic Law, married King Edward II. of England and left only male issue, King Edward III. of England. Thus Edward III. claimed to be the nearest male heir; but the French maintained that the Salic Law, which prohibited female inheritance of the French crown, debarred Edward's claim. Edward III. sought to evade the force of the Salic Law by asserting that, though a female could not inherit the French crown, she could transmit it to her male descendants; but the French replied that a female could not transmit a right which she did not herself possess. It was in accordance with the French view of the Salic Law that on the extinction of the direct male line of the House of Capet, in 1328, the French crown passed to Philip the Fair's nephew, Count Philip of Valois, who then became King Philip VI. of France.

The Salic Law.

Allies of Edward III.

Edward III. had powerful adherents in Germany, as well as in Flanders, and the Emperor Louis the Bavarian appointed him Imperial Vicar in the Netherlands; while Jacques van Artevelde, the brewer of Ghent, already alluded to, acknowledged him King of France.

Beginning of the Hundred Years' War.

The great struggle that now began between England and France is known as the *Hundred Years' War*, because it lasted more than a century, with intervals of peace. During this long struggle English kings achieved a world-wide renown and English soldiers covered themselves with glory, but the final result was the loss of all the English possessions in France except Calais.

Naval Battle of Helvoetsluys.

The Hundred Years' War commenced in 1339. The next year the English fleet destroyed the French navy in the great battle of Sluys, or Helvoetsluys, off the coast of Flanders, June 24, 1340. But the English king's unjust wars with Scotland and France had exhausted his treasures. The clergy and people of England refused more taxes, except upon the concession of greater privileges; and thus Edward III. was very reluctantly obliged to conclude peace with the King of France for the time.

Short Peace.

Invasion of France by Edward III.

A disputed succession to the duchy of Brittany again involved Edward III. in the affairs of France. He invaded France with thirty thousand men, landing at Cape La Hogue, in Normandy, June 12, 1346; and, accompanied by his eldest son, Edward, he marched almost to the gates of Paris, ravaging the country with fire and sword. Upon being pursued by King Philip VI. with an army of one hundred thousand Frenchmen, he retreated to the Somme and crossed that stream, taking position on the edge of the forest of Crecy, about twelve miles from Abbeville, where he was attacked by the French king with his superior army, August 26, 1346; thus bringing on the great battle of Crecy, in which the English, although only one-third as numerous as the French, won a glorious victory.

Battle of Crecy.

Superiority of the English Archers.

The French advance troops came up with the English about three o'clock in the afternoon. The engagement was delayed by a short but severe thunder-storm; but in half an hour the sun shone out brightly, darting his rays on the backs of the English, but full in the eyes of the French. The battle began with the archers on both sides, and the superior discipline of the English at once became apparent. Their bows had been carefully secured in their cases during the recent storm, and their arrows fell like hail and with terrible execution among the French; while the arrows of the French fell short of their mark, because their bow-strings were wet and slackened.

Cannon First Used.

The battle soon became general. The English employed the new invention of gunpowder by using several pieces of cannon—the first instance of such engines of warfare being used in any great European battle. The front ranks of the French were thrown into confusion; and Prince Edward, with remarkable valor, led a charge right into the disordered mass. King Edward III., who was watching the field from the top of a windmill, was importuned to send him help. He asked: "Is my son dead, wounded, or felled to the ground?" He was answered: "Not so, thank God!" The king then said: "Nay, then, he has no aid from me; let him bear himself like a man; in this battle he must win his spurs."

Valor of Edward the Black Prince.

Defeat of the French.

The King of France fought with great valor, but without success. His entire army fled in dismay in the evening, and were pursued and slaughtered without mercy. Among the slain was the blind old King John of Bohemia, a singular soldier of fortune, who had fought on most of the battlefields of Europe in his day. He had ordered his horse to be tied to those of two knights of his retinue, who rode one on each side. All three knights lay dead together, while the three horses stood unhurt beside the bodies of their dead masters. The Prince of Wales is said to have adopted the dead Bohemian king's crest and motto; the crest consisting of three ostrich feathers surmounting the motto in German, *Ich dien*, meaning "I serve." This crest and motto has been borne by every Prince of Wales ever since. This young Prince of Wales, the hero of Creçy, was ever afterwards known as *Edward the Black Prince*, from the color of the armor which he wore on that memorable field.

Death of B'ind Old King John of Bohemia.

The Black Prince's Motto.

Scottish Invasion of England.

The Scots took advantage of the war between England and France to recall King David Bruce and form an alliance with France. Instigated by the King of France, David Bruce led an army of fifty thousand Scots across the border into the North of England, ravaging the country as far as Durham. With great energy, Edward's heroic queen, Philippa of Hainault, raised an army of twelve thousand men, placing it under the command of Lord Percy, who won a great and

Battle of Neville's Cross.

decisive victory over the Scots in the battle of Neville's Cross, near Durham, October 10, 1346, taking King David Bruce prisoner. The King of Scots was carried a captive to London and confined in the Tower.

Discovery of Coal at Newcastle.

In her campaign against the Scots, Queen Philippa ascertained that there were rich deposits of coal about Newcastle, and perceiving their vast importance she obtained permission from Parliament to open the mines. England's coal is, directly and indirectly, one of the chief sources of her wealth.

Siege and Capture of Calais by Edward III.

After his great victory at Creçy, Edward III. laid siege to Calais, the key to France. The city was stubbornly defended by the French for nearly a year, when, reduced by famine, Calais was obliged to surrender. It is said that the English king agreed to spare the inhabitants of Calais, whose long resistance exasperated him, if six of the leading citizens should be sent to him, with ropes about their necks, ready for hanging. The unfortunate inhabitants gave way to despair at these hard conditions; but Eustace St. Pierre, a wealthy merchant of Calais, offered himself as one of the victims. Inspired by his noble example, five others followed him. The entreaties of the English nobles, of Edward's queen, Philippa, and of his heroic son, Edward the Black Prince, finally prevailed over the king's obstinate temper and saved the lives of the six noble-hearted citizens. After the surrender of Calais, Edward III. expelled its French inhabitants, and peopled the city with English; and for two centuries that important town remained in the possession of England.

Eustace St. Pierre and His Associates

Calais Made an English Town.

The Black Plague.

After the capture of Calais a truce of ten months was concluded; but hostilities were not renewed for eight years, as both England and France were frightfully ravaged by the *Black Plague*, which commenced in Western Asia and swept over Europe during the four years beginning with 1348, destroying one-third of the population. It is said that over half the inhabitants of England perished from this dreadful plague.

Hostilities Renewed.

Hostilities between England and France were renewed in 1355, when King Edward III. invaded the North of France; while his chivalrous son, Edward the Black Prince, hastened to Guienne. Both these English armies ravaged the French dominions.

The Black Prince's Invasion of France.

The next year, A. D. 1356, the Black Prince advanced into the county of Poitou with only eight thousand English and Gascon troops; but at Poitiers he found himself confronted by a French army of sixty thousand men under King John the Good, the successor of Philip of Valois on the throne of France. The English, by the skill and discipline of their archers, won as brilliant a victory in the battle of Poitiers, September 19, 1356, as they had achieved at Creçy ten years before.

Battle of Poitiers.

The Battle and King John the Good of France before the Battle.

Two days before this battle the Black Prince encamped near Poitiers. The same evening the King of France encamped a mile away. When the Black Prince saw the French army advance upon him so unexpectedly, he exclaimed: "God help us! it only remains for us to fight bravely." The Cardinal of Perigord, who was with the French army, desired peace very much, and rode backwards and forwards between King John the Good and the Black Prince several times for the purpose of effecting a treaty. The Black Prince said to him: "Save my honor, and the honor of my army, and I will readily listen to any reasonable conditions." But the French king would consent to nothing unless the Black Prince and a hundred of his knights would surrender themselves prisoners of war. The Black Prince replied to this demand thus: "I will never be made a prisoner but sword in hand."

Bravery of King John and His Son Philip.

Finding his efforts unavailing, the Cardinal of Perigord retired to Poitiers, and both armies prepared for the decisive battle which ensued. King John the Good fought bravely, though deserted by most of his knights. His son Philip, afterwards Duke Philip the Bold of Burgundy, fought gallantly by his father's side, though scarcely fourteen years old. The French king, wearied and overwhelmed by numbers, might easily have been slain; but every English knight was ambitious to take him alive, and he was exhorted on all sides to surrender. King John still cried out: "Where is my cousin, the Prince of Wales?" He seemed unwilling to surrender to any person of inferior rank; but, being told that the Black Prince was at a distance, he finally surrendered to a French knight named Morbec, who had been obliged to leave his country for murder. The French king's heroic son Philip, who acquired the surname of *the Bold*, on account of his gallantry in this battle, likewise surrendered.

They Become Prisoners.

King John and His Captors.

The Black Prince, who was reposing in his tent from the fatigues of the battle, displayed anxiety for the fate of the King of France, and sent the Earl of Warwick to bring him intelligence. That nobleman found the captive king at a fortunate moment, as his life was exposed to more danger than during the battle. The English had forcibly taken the royal prisoner from Morbec, and quarreled among themselves for the custody of his person. Some brutal soldiers, rather than yield the prize to their rivals, had threatened to put their illustrious captive to death; but the Earl of Warwick overawed all parties, rescued the captive monarch from their turbulence, and led him to the Black Prince.

The Black Prince's Generosity to His Royal Captive.

The Black Prince treated the captive French king with every mark of respect and sympathy, seeking to soothe and comfort him. He ordered a magnificent supper to be prepared, and himself served at the table, as if he had been one of the retinue. He stood behind the captive monarch's chair, refusing to be seated in his presence, saying: "I

know too well the difference of rank between a subject and a sovereign prince." King John the Good was much affected by the Black Prince's generous treatment, so little to be expected from so youthful a conqueror; and he burst into tears, declaring that though it was his fate to be a captive he rejoiced that he had fallen into the hands of the most generous and valiant prince then living.

King John's Captivity in London.

After returning thanks to God for his victory, the Black Prince praised his troops for their valor, and gave rewards and dignities to such as had especially distinguished themselves. On April 24, 1357, he sailed for England with his royal prisoners. On approaching London they were met by a thousand citizens in their best array, who conducted them with great state to Westminster. The Black Prince, in a plain dress and on a little palfrey, rode beside the captive King of France, who was attired in royal robes and mounted on a stately war horse. When they arrived at Westminster, King Edward III. met them and embraced King John the Good with every mark of respect and affection. The French king and his son were sumptuously lodged in the old palace of the Savoy, and during their three years' captivity in England they were treated more like guests than like prisoners.

Generously Treated by Edward III. and the Black Prince.

Ransom and Release of King David Bruce.

Edward III. now had two kings in captivity; but King David Bruce, who had been a prisoner in England eleven years, was soon released, upon the payment of a large ransom by the Scots. After being a captive in England for three years, King John the Good was released by the Peace of Bretigny, in May, 1360, upon the payment of a ransom of three million gold crowns. By this treaty Edward III. renounced his claim to the French crown and to the French provinces of Normandy, Brittany, Maine, Touraine and Anjou; but he retained the town of Calais, the county of Ponthieu, and the duchy of Guienne, with Poitou and Gascony, no longer as a vassal, but as an independent sovereign. Edward III. promised to give no more assistance or encouragement to the rebellious Flemings, and John the Good agreed to abandon the cause of the Scots.

Peace of Bretigny and Ransom and Release of King John the Good.

King John's Hostages.

Edward III. accompanied King John the Good to Calais, on his return to France; and the two kings parted with many expressions of affection and regard, October 24, 1360. King John gave forty hostages to Edward III. for the payment of the ransom, among whom were two of the French king's sons. These princes violated their parole by escaping from England; whereupon King John the Good, thinking that his own honor was impeached by this breach of faith on the part of his sons, voluntarily returned to captivity in London, where he died in 1364.

His Voluntary Return to Captivity and Death.

The government of the English provinces in France was conferred on the Black Prince, who, with his wife, the *Fair Maid of Kent*, estab-

lished their court at Bordeaux. In a few years he was called upon to interfere in the affairs of Castile, one of the Christian kingdoms in Spain. King Pedro the Cruel of Castile had so disgusted his subjects that they dethroned him, with the aid of the French under Du Guesclin, and conferred the Castilian crown upon his half-brother, Henry of Trastamara. The deposed Pedro the Cruel appealed to the Black Prince, who led his army into Spain and defeated Henry of Trastamara at Navarette, April 3, 1367. Thereupon all Castile submitted, and Pedro the Cruel was restored to his throne, but he proved a worse tyrant than before. Henry of Trastamara, with military aid from France, again dethroned the tyrant, and murdered him with his own hand. John of Gaunt, Duke of Lancaster, the Black Prince's brother, married a daughter of Pedro the Cruel, and claimed the Castilian crown in her name.

Edward the Black Prince and the Fair Maid of Kent at Bordeaux.

The Black Prince's Part in the Civil War in Castile.

A change was gradually taking place in the methods of warfare. Hitherto mailclad knights had been the chief reliance in battle; but Edward III., by following the example of William Wallace at Falkirk, had achieved his most brilliant triumphs with English archers, whose volleys of arrows discharged with unerring aim threw the knights of France into hopeless confusion at Creçy and Poitiers. Although Creçy was the first great European battlefield in which cannon were used, heavy cannon which hurled stones were used before for siege purposes.

Change in Methods of Warfare.

During the reign of Edward III., Chivalry was at its height, and his court was Chivalry's capital, whither gallant knights had been in the habit of gathering from all portions of Europe, to mingle in the scenes of feudal splendor that constantly dazzled the eyes of the wondering and admiring people. His plume was always preëminent, alike in the friendly lists of the tournament or in the deadly shock of battle.

Edward III and Chivalry.

Edward III. made the English name glorious by his victories over the French and the Scots, and his fame was worthily sustained by his gallant son, Edward the Black Prince. As King of England, Edward III. proved himself worthy to rule a great nation. By the vigor and wisdom of his administration, he forced all classes to acknowledge the supremacy of the law; and by his affability and generosity, and his earnest desire for the welfare and happiness of all his two million subjects, he attached both nobles and commons to his rule, and won their hearty support in all his enterprises.

Edward III. as a Warrior and a Statesman.

Though the foreign wars of Edward III. were unjust, they served to occupy the turbulent spirits of the great nobles with adventures adapted to their tastes, and kept England at internal peace. The laws were well administered, and the common people enjoyed greater prosperity than for several centuries before or after.

England's Prosperity under His Rule.

Britons, Anglo-Saxons and Normans Blended as Englishmen.

The national animosity engendered between England and France by the wars of Edward III. made the feeling of nationality stronger in England. Hitherto feelings of jealousy and antipathy had existed among the people of the different nationalities in England. The native Briton could not forgive his Saxon conqueror, and both Briton and Saxon detested the proud and domineering Norman. During the reign of Edward III. these discordant nationalities were blended into one harmonious nation. They then ceased to be any longer Britons, Anglo-Saxons or Normans; but all became Englishmen. They fought side by side at Creçy and Poitiers, and the animosities of the hitherto discordant nationalities melted away amid the rejoicing of victory over a common enemy of all. National hatred toward the French blended these different nationalities into one people. Thenceforth they looked back with a common pride to a glorious past, and forward with a common hope to a more glorious future.

Formation of the English Language.

As a result of the blending of the different nationalities into Englishmen, the English language began to assume its present form during the reign of Edward III. The Anglo-Saxon peasantry had always adhered to their own language; while Latin was the language of business and the graver literature, and French the language of society and the lighter literature. But during this reign the Anglo-Saxon, or Old English, with an admixture of both Latin and French, was slowly becoming the national tongue by developing into the modern English. This result was greatly accelerated by the mighty impetus which it received from the writings of the renowned Oxford professor and reformer, John Wycliffe, which were extensively circulated throughout England. In 1357 Parliament enacted a statute requiring the use of the English language in the courts of justice and in the public deeds, instead of the French. Late in the reign of Edward III. the English tongue was taught in the schools, instead of the French. Even the French romances and other popular literature began to be translated into English.

Its Use in Courts and Schools.

Writings of Sir John Mandeville.

The earliest writer of English prose whose work remains was Sir John Mandeville, who is supposed to have been born about A. D. 1300, and who died in 1372. He left England in 1327, the year of the accession of Edward III., and spent thirty-four years in visiting Palestine, Egypt, India and China. On his return to his native land, he published an account of his travels, in Latin, which was afterwards translated into French, and from French into English. His work, full of the most entertaining details, freely interspersed with many wonderful and incredible tales, acquired for him an extraordinary reputation among his contemporaries, and was soon circulated over Europe, translated into various languages.

Parliament's Power.

The king's urgent need of money for his wars with Scotland and France made him dependent upon Parliament, and thus the English people's representatives acquired greater dignity and power. Forced by his necessities during his French wars, Edward III. confirmed the Great Charter thirteen times.

Houses of Lords and Commons.

Edward III. increased the number of towns allowed to send representatives to Parliament, making the legislative body so large that it was found necessary to divide it into two distinct branches. The branch composed of the nobles, or Lords Temporal, and the bishops, or Lords Spiritual, was thenceforth called the *House of Lords*. The other branch, consisting of the representatives of the cities, boroughs and counties, has ever since been styled the *House of Commons*.

England's Legislative Development.

Thus was perfected the legislative department of the English government. The Witenagemote of the Anglo-Saxons had developed into the Great Council of the Normans; the Great Council had given place to the single Parliament of Simon de Montfort during the reign of Henry III.; and this single Parliament prepared the way for the Parliament in its perfect form of two independent Houses during the reign of Edward III. Thenceforth the Commons, or people's representatives, who had been overawed in the presence of the Lords, assumed a more independent character.

Statute of Treasons.

In 1352 Parliament passed the *Statute of Treasons*, by which the crime of high treason was clearly defined. Edward III. enlarged and improved Windsor Castle, and founded the order of the *Knights of the Garter*.

Church Property and Taxation.

At this time the Roman Church owned about one-third of the real estate of England, and the taxes for Church purposes exceeded all the other taxes in the kingdom combined. Although more money was annually raised in England for the Pope than for the king himself, the Pope had demanded the payment of the tribute money, one thousand marks a year, promised by King John to Pope Innocent III. when he made England a papal fief—a tribute now in arrears thirty-three years.

John Wycliffe, the Reformer.

Edward III. and Parliament firmly maintained the independence of England against the papal encroachments; and in this they were ably sustained by the Oxford professor and reformer, John Wycliffe, who boldly denied the Pope's assumptions, and maintained that no man could be excommunicated by the Pope "unless he first excommunicated himself." Wycliffe defended Parliament's indignant refusal to pay the tribute demanded by Pope Urban V.—a demand which the Pope was unable to enforce.

Gradual Abolition of Serfdom in England.

During this and the preceding reigns the English serfs had in various ways gradually risen to the condition of freemen. The work of

emancipation had been accelerated by the necessities of the lords themselves, who resorted to every expedient to obtain money to maintain the pomp and splendor of Chivalry, which was expensive in time of peace, and doubly so in time of war. To commute the services of the serfs for their estimated value in money was a ready and productive way with the nobility. Edward III. himself sent agents all over the royal estates to sell to the serfs their freedom, in order to raise funds for his wars with France. Thus, by the middle of the fourteenth century, slave labor had largely given place to free labor, which was then abundant and cheap.

Scarcity of Labor.

The Black Plague, which swept England with the besom of destruction in 1348, carrying off more than half the inhabitants, was especially malignant among the lower classes. At its close labor was scarce and high; and, as it naturally sought the best market, harvests in some parts of England could not be gathered for want of help.

Statute of Laborers.

The landowners appealed to Parliament for relief; and an act called the *Statute of Laborers* was passed in 1350, restoring the old price of labor, and compelling the laboring classes to seek employment within the limits of their own respective parishes; thus practically reviving the old and odious system of serfdom, and creating the most intense discontent among the peasantry.

Peasant Discontent.

The peasants assembled at the various centers to listen to the harangues of their leaders, who depicted in bitter language the wretched condition of the poor and the luxurious estate of the rich. The oppressed peasantry were ready for revolt by the close of the reign of Edward III.

Stubborn Resistance of the Peasantry.

The repeated reënactment of the Statute of Laborers shows how ineffectual was its enforcement and the stubborn resistance of the peasantry, who found ready allies among the villains, or the very lowest serfs. Throughout Kent and the eastern counties the gatherings of the "fugitive serfs" were supported by an organized resistance and by contributions of money from the wealthier tenantry. In the towns, where the system of forced labor was also rigorously applied, strikes and combinations among the craftsmen became frequent.

Failure of the Statute of Laborers.

Imprisonment was the penalty for disobedience of the Statute of Laborers. So ineffectual were the punishments that at last the runaway laborer, who often became a beggar and an outlaw, was ordered to be branded on the forehead with a hot iron; and the harboring of serfs in towns and villages was rigorously suppressed.

Illness of the Black Prince.

After his return to Bordeaux from his Castilian campaign the Black Prince became subject to such continued ill-health that he was believed to have been poisoned. His illness had a most unhappy effect upon his temper; and, from being one of the most benevolent and generous of men, he became cruel and morose. After some months of constant

suffering, he became so weak that he was unable to mount his horse, and was obliged to relinquish his command in the army.

English Military Disaster in France.

Thus far the career of King Edward III. and Edward the Black Prince had been one of brilliant success, but after the retirement of the Black Prince the glory of England departed, and disasters fell thick and fast after the renewal of the war with France in 1368. King Charles the Wise of France—the son and successor of John the Good—slowly and steadily retrieved his father's losses, through the military talents of his great general, Du Guesclin, who deprived the English of all their possessions in France except the seaport towns of Calais, Bordeaux and Bayonne. Castilian fleets had well-nigh destroyed the navy of England and swept English commerce from the seas. Worn out with the struggle, Edward III. obtained a truce in 1375 for two years; and the Black Prince returned to England, as a last hope for the recovery of his health.

Castilian Fleets.

Truce.

Edward III. and Alice Perrers.

King Edward III. was now an old man, scarcely able to administer the government; and Edward the Black Prince, the heir to the throne, was slowly dying. The king's worthy wife, Philippa of Hainault, was dead; and the enfeebled old king fell under the influence of an infamous mistress, named Alice Perrers, who made use of the royal favors for unworthy purposes; while John, Duke of Lancaster, one of the king's sons—called John of Gaunt, or Ghent, from his birth-place, in Flanders—got control of the government and appointed unworthy men to office, so that England was in a deplorable condition. The people were burdened with oppressive taxation, the public funds were squandered, the courts of justice were overawed, and the elections were corrupted.

Misrule of John of Gaunt.

Reforms of the Good Parliament.

The *Good Parliament*, which convened at Westminster in 1376, proceeded to reform the abuses that had crept into the affairs of state, and was nobly supported by the Black Prince, who devoted his last remaining energies to the work of reform. The Commons impeached, or accused before the Lords, several of the corrupt officials appointed by the Duke of Lancaster—the first instance in which the Commons used their power to impeach ministers of the crown. The Duke of Lancaster was obliged to retire from the government, and Alice Perrers was forced by a threat of banishment to cease interfering with the administration of justice.

First Impeachment.

The Pope's Demands Resisted by the Good Parliament, John of Gaunt and John Wycliffe.

John of Gaunt, Duke of Lancaster, whose corrupt administration was the source of so many of the prevalent abuses, was in accord with the Good Parliament and the English people in resisting the Pope's demands for tribute from England. He was powerfully sustained in this course by John Wycliffe, the Oxford professor and reformer, who boldly denounced the exactions and corruptions of the Roman Church.

The Duke of Lancaster, who was selfish and unscrupulous, cared little for the corruptions of the Church, but coveted its vast wealth, and planned a sweeping confiscation of Church property; but Wycliffe, who was of exalted purity of character, opposed the Church on account of its abuses and assumptions.

Lamented Death of the Black Prince.

Edward the Black Prince died June 8, 1376, in the forty-seventh year of his age, amid the grief of all England; and he was buried in Canterbury Cathedral. His death was a public calamity, as it brought the reforms of the Good Parliament to a sudden close. His brother, John of Gaunt, Duke of Lancaster, at once returned to power, followed by the election of a new Parliament in his interest.

Melancholy Death of Edward III.

The death of the Black Prince broke the heart of poor old King Edward III., who survived his illustrious son but one year, dying at Shene, June 21, 1377, in the sixty-fifth year of his age, after a reign of fifty years. His last years were rendered gloomy by the disasters which had befallen him, and his death was peculiarly sad—a striking commentary on the vanity of human glory. As death drew near he was utterly forsaken, being deserted by all his attendants. Even his mistress, Alice Perrers, fled, after snatching a ring from his unresisting finger. A compassionate priest entered the deserted chamber at the last moment, and held a crucifix before the eyes of the dying king. Such was the melancholy end of Edward III., the very prince of the renowned royal race of the Plantagenets, the hero of the French wars, the pride of England.

Richard II., A. D. 1377–1399.

Richard II., the son of the Black Prince, became King of England upon the death of his illustrious grandfather in 1377; but, as the new king was only a boy of eleven years at his accession, Parliament chose a Council of Regency to administer the government. The English people idolized their handsome boy king, as they had his renowned father and grandfather, and his early years gave encouragement to their hopes. No king ever ascended the throne of England more heartily welcomed; as the very fact that he was the son of the Black Prince, that model of Chivalry and idol of the people, gave him a warm place in all English hearts. Though handsome, he was effeminate, a mere lover of pleasure and royal pomp. His retinue numbered ten thousand persons, and its passage through the kingdom was dreaded almost as much as an army of invasion.

The Boy King and the Council of Regency.

English Disasters on Sea and Land.

We have already alluded to the discontent of the laboring classes at the close of the preceding reign. When Richard II. ascended the throne of England he was involved in wars with Scotland, France and Castile. One English fleet was beaten by the Castilians; another was lost in a storm; while a campaign in the heart of France terminated disastrously to the English.

Unjust Taxation.

To defray the expenses of these repeated disasters, Parliament in 1381 levied a tax of one shilling on every person in England over fifteen years of age. The injustice of imposing a tax to which the poorest man in the kingdom contributed as large a share as the richest threw all England into a violent ferment, and the insolence of the tax-gatherers fanned this flame of disaffection into open rebellion.

Beginning of Wat Tyler's Rebellion.

One of these tax-collectors insulted the daughter of Wat Tyler, a blacksmith at Deptford, in Kent; whereupon the enraged father knocked the ruffian down with his hammer. The plucky blacksmith's action was heartily applauded by the mob; and the peasants of Essex, Kent and the neighboring counties gathered together, armed with clubs, bows and rusty swords, under the leadership of Wat Tyler, Jack Straw, Hob Carter and Tom Miller. The royal commissioners who had been sent to repress the tumult were driven from the field; and a band of insurgents in Essex under Jack Straw crossed the Thames to summon the men of Kent to arms, but a hundred thousand Kentishmen were already rallying under Wat Tyler.

Jack Straw, Hob Carter and Tom Miller.

John Ball's Preaching.

The cry of the poor and oppressed peasantry, who had thus risen in revolt, found a terrible utterance in the words of John Ball, "a mad priest of Kent," as the courtly historian Froissart called him. For twenty years this Kentish priest had preached a coarser and more popular type of reform than that of Wycliffe, and the stalwart yeomanry assembled in the Kentish churchyards to listen to his sermons, in defiance of interdict and imprisonment. Though the landowners called John Ball "mad," his preaching was the first declaration of the rights of man in England—the death-knell of Feudalism. The tyranny of property then as ever roused the defiance of Socialism. John Ball's leveling doctrine breathed a spirit fatal to the entire system of the Middle Ages. His sermons set forth the popular grievances in words as extreme as those of any Communist or Chartist of our own time.

His Communistic Sermons.

Said this Kentish priest: "Good people, things will never go well in England so long as goods be not in common, and so long as there be villains and gentlemen. By what right are they whom we call lords greater folk than we? On what grounds have they deserved it? Why do they hold us in serfage? If we all came of the same father and mother, of Adam and Eve, how can they say or prove that they are better than we, if it be not that they make us gain for them by our toil what they spend in their pride? They are clothed in velvet, and warm in their furs and their ermines, while we are covered with rags. They have wine and spices and fair bread; and we oatcake and straw, and water to drink. They have leisure and fine houses; we have pain and labor, the rain and the wind in the fields. And yet it is of us and of our toil that these men hold their state."

His Rhyme.

Ball expressed his leveling doctrines in the following rhyme, which passed from lip to lip:

"When Adam delved and Eve span,
Who was then the gentleman?"

The Rebel Peasants under Wat Tyler and Jack Straw in Canterbury and London.

The revolt of the peasants spread like wildfire over England. From Kent, Sussex and Essex, the revolt spread over Norfolk, Suffolk, Cambridgeshire and Hertfordshire, and as far west as Somerset and Winchester. But the strength of the outbreak lay in the Kentishmen, who welcomed Jack Straw and his rebels from Essex, who plundered the archbishop's palace at Canterbury and liberated John Ball from its prison; while a hundred thousand Kentishmen under Wat Tyler marched to London, killing every lawyer who fell into their hands as they reached Blackheath, shouting: "Not till all these be killed will the land enjoy its freedom again." At the same time they fired the houses of the stewards and cast the records of the manor courts into the flames.

John of Gaunt's Flight to Scotland.

The whole population joined the insurgents as they marched along, while the nobles were paralyzed with fear. John of Gaunt, Duke of Lancaster, the head of the Council of Regency, fled before the popular fury, and took refuge in Scotland. Young King Richard II., but a boy of sixteen, addressed the insurgents from a barge on the Thames, June 14, 1381; but the Council of Regency, under the guidance of Sudbury, Archbishop of Canterbury, refused to allow him to land, thus arousing the peasants to the greatest fury; and the great mass of rebels rushed on London, crying: "Treason! treason!" The great gates of the metropolis were flung open by the poorer artisans within the city; and the stately palace of the Duke of Lancaster at the Savoy, the new inn of the lawyers at the Temple, and the houses of the foreign merchants, were all soon in a blaze.

Richard II. in His Barge.

Outrages of the Rebels in London.

They Enter the Tower and Murder Archbishop Sudbury.

The next day, June 15, 1381, a daring band of the insurgent peasants, under Wat Tyler himself, forced their way into the Tower, took the panic-stricken knights of the garrison roughly by the beard, and promised to be their equals and comrades in the good time to come. The infuriated mob discovered Sudbury, Archbishop of Canterbury, and some of the ministers who had hindered the young king from a conference with them, in the chapel; whereupon the Primate was dragged from the sanctuary and beheaded on Tower Hill, while the same vengeance was wreaked on the treasurer and the chief commissioner in the levy of the obnoxious poll-tax.

Address of Richard II to the Rebels at Mile-End.

In the meantime the young king found sixty thousand of the peasant mob waiting for a conference with him outside of the city, at Mile-End. Addressing the vast mob, Richard II. spoke thus: "My good

people, what means this disorder? I am your king and lord, what will ye?" The peasants shouted: "We will that you free us forever, us and our lands; and that we be never named nor held for serfs." The boy king replied: "I grant it." He then requested them to retire to their homes, and pledged himself instantly to issue charters of freedom and amnesty. This promise was welcomed with a shout of joy. During the same day more than thirty clerks were busy writing letters of pardon and emancipation, and when these were handed to the rebels they dispersed quietly to their homes.

His Grant of Charters of Freedom

William Grindecobbe returned to St. Albans with one of these charters of freedom, marched at the head of the townsmen, and summoned the abbot to deliver up the charters which bound the town in serfage to his house. After a long suit at law, the millstones had been surrendered to the abbey, and placed within its cloister as a triumphant witness that no burgess held the right of grinding corn within the bounds of its domain. The men of St. Albans now burst open the cloister gates, tore the millstones from the floor, and broke them into fragments "like blessed bread in church," so that all might have something to show of the day when their freedom was again acquired.

William Grindecobbe at St. Albans.

Thirty thousand peasants under Wat Tyler, thinking the king's promise was only a stratagem to get them out of the city, still remained to see the royal pledge fulfilled; and the next day, June 16, 1381, Richard II., accompanied by William Walworth, Lord Mayor of London, and a retinue of sixty horsemen, met this part of the mob at Smithfield. Wat Tyler ordered his followers to remain at a distance, while he rode up to the king and behaved toward him with such insolence that Lord Mayor William Walworth struck the audacious blacksmith to the ground with his sword, whereupon Wat Tyler was slain by others of the king's retinue.

Wat Tyler's Insolence to Richard II.

Tyler Killed by Lord Mayor William Walworth and Others.

The enraged mob, infuriated by the loss of their leader, rushed forward and threatened to overwhelm the king's entire party, shouting: "Kill, kill. They have killed our captain." But the young king's presence of mind saved the lives of himself and his retinue. Riding boldly up to the mob before they had time to recover from their momentary surprise, Richard II. cried: "What need ye, my masters? Be not troubled for the death of your unworthy leader. I, your king, will be your leader! Follow me." Turning his horse, the boy king rode into the open field at the head of the mob, who followed him with a touching loyalty and trust to the Tower, believing that he had abused his youth under the influence of evil counselors.

The Boy King's Life Saved by His Own Presence of Mind.

The young king's mother welcomed her son with tears of joy. The boy king answered: "Rejoice and praise God; for I have recovered to-day my heritage which was lost, and the realm of England." The

His Reply to His Mother.

Freedom and Amnesty to Rebels.

nobles had recovered from their panic, and six thousand knights gathered around the king, eager for the blood of the mob; but Richard II. was still true to his word, and contented himself with issuing the promised certificates of freedom and amnesty to the insurgents who dismissed to their homes.

Rebels at St. Edmundsbury and Norwich.

But the peasant revolt was not yet over. A strong body of the mob still occupied St. Albans. In the eastern counties, fifty thousand rebels forced the gates of St. Edmundsbury and compelled the trembling monks to grant a charter of enfranchisement to the town. Littester, a dyer of Norwich, headed a strong mass of peasants, under the title of "King of the Commons," and forced the nobles whom he had captured to act as his meat-tasters and to serve him on their knees during his repast.

Vigor of the Bishop of Norwich and Richard II.

The death of Wat Tyler, however, encouraged the nobles, and deprived the revolted peasants of all decision and all concert of action. The warlike Bishop of Norwich with lance in hand attacked the rebel camp in his own diocese, and dispersed the peasants at the first onset. King Richard II., with forty thousand troops, spread terror by the ruthlessness of his executions as he marched in triumph through Kent and Essex; but the obstinate resistance which he encountered showed the temper of the people.

The Villagers of Billericay.

The villagers of Billericay demanded that the king should grant them the same liberties that their lords possessed, and when he refused their demand they occupied the woods and were only reduced to submission after two desperate conflicts. Verdicts of guilty against the leaders of the revolt could only be wrung from the Essex jurors by the threat of death. William Grindecobbe was offered his life if he would persuade his followers at St. Albans to surrender the charters of freedom which they had wrested from the monks. He turned bravely to his fellow-townsmen and bade them not to be concerned for his trouble. Said he: "If I die, I shall die for the cause of the freedom we have won, counting myself happy to end my life by such a martyrdom. Do, then, to-day as you would have done had I been killed yesterday."

William Grindecobbe's Resolution.

Action of the Royal Council and Parliament.

But the resolute will of the conquered peasants encountered as determined a will in their lordly conquerors. The Royal Council, however, manifested its sense of danger by submitting the question of enfranchisement to the Parliament which had convened on the suppression of the revolt, with words which suggested a compromise. Said the royal message: "If you desire to enfranchise and set at liberty the said serfs by your common assent, as the king has been informed that some of you desire, he will consent to your prayer." But the reply of the landowners showed their determination to consent to no compromise. They answered that the king's grant and letters of freedom were legally null

Reply of the Landlords.

and void; that their serfs were their goods, and that the king could not take their goods from them without their own consent. They closed by declaring: "And this consent we have never given and never will give, were we all to die in one day."

Desire for Liberty.

Though the revolts were quelled and the peasants nominally returned to a condition of serfdom, the newly awakened desire for personal liberty could not be extinguished; and the work of emancipation went on slowly but surely, until a century and a-half later, when serfdom finally ceased in England.

Character of Wat Tyler's Rebellion.

Though Wat Tyler's Rebellion was little better than tumultuous gatherings of ill-organized mobs, whose subsidence was as sudden as their uprising, the social and political questions involved raise it to a plane of serious importance. It was a revolt based on social distinctions—the commencement of an irrepressible conflict between the poor and humble oppressed and the rich and noble oppressor—the beginning of an antagonism between labor and capital, that has continued unabated in one form or another to this day. Wat Tyler was an ancestor of John Tyler, tenth President of the United States; and Lord Mayor Walworth was an ancestor of Chancellor Walworth, of New York.

Collapse of the First Reformation.

Wat Tyler's Rebellion, which the Church charged to the seditious and heretical teachings of John Wycliffe and his followers, was a serious blow to the *First Reformation*, as Wycliffe's religious movement was called. Wycliffe was forsaken by his most powerful friends, including John of Gaunt, Duke of Lancaster. Another reason for this defection was Wycliffe's extreme views concerning some of the tenets of the Roman Church. He was applauded by all classes so long as he merely exposed the corruptions of the Church; but he lost the sympathy of all good Catholics when he assailed its cardinal doctrines.

Wycliffe's Pamphlets against Church Abuses.

It was in this emergency that Wycliffe displayed the real grandeur and versatility of his genius. He no longer addressed scholarly arguments in classic Latin to the learned, but he thenceforth directed his appeals in plain Anglo-Saxon to the English masses. Pamphlet after pamphlet from his prolific pen denouncing the doctrines and practices of the Church alike was circulated broadcast over England. In these pamphlets the clergy were fearlessly assailed for their avarice and exactions, their sale of indulgences for sin, and the gift of Church benefices to foreign priests, "who neither see nor care to see their parishioners, convey away the treasure of the realm, and are worse than Jews or Saracens." These tracts, written in the strong, rough language of the plowmen and mechanics of the time, are the earliest specimens of English prose.

Like Roger Bacon a century before, John Wycliffe was surrounded by a throng of eager disciples; and an order of preachers, called the

The Simple Priests and the Lollards.

Simple Priests, was instituted to disseminate his doctrines among the English people. These earnest young men, who, scattering to their humble parishes, diffused Wycliffe's teachings throughout England, were derisively called *Lollards*, or "babblers," by their enemies; but the common people heard them gladly, and such progress was made that, in the bitter language of a careful observer of the times, "every other man you met was a Lollard."

Wycliffe's Doctrines in Bohemia.

The first wife of King Richard II., Anne of Bohemia, favored Wycliffe's doctrines; and many of her countrymen, who attended the University of Oxford, carried the great reformer's writings thence to the University of Prague, in Bohemia, where they kindled an extraordinary religious movement; so that Wycliffe was the "Morning Star of the Reformation" for Bohemia as well as for England.

Wycliffe's Banishment from Oxford.

His Retirement at Lutterworth.

His Translation of the Bible.

The regency in England, under the influence of the Duke of Lancaster, came to the assistance of the Church in 1381, the very year of Wat Tyler's Rebellion; and Wycliffe was banished from the University of Oxford, while his writings were condemned as heretical and sentenced to the flames. He then retired to Lutterworth, where he devoted the remaining three years of his life to the humble duties of a parish priest, and to the last and greatest work of his life—the complete translation of the Bible into English, for the instruction of the common people. He had a stroke of paralysis while attending mass in the parish church, and died peacefully the next day, December 31, 1384, at the age of sixty years.

Geoffrey Chaucer, Father of English Poetry.

During the reign of Richard II. flourished Geoffrey Chaucer, the "Morning Star of English Poetry." Chaucer was born in 1328, and died in 1400. Many causes operating through five centuries had so changed the language of England that the prose of Alfred the Great and the poetry of Cædmon required as much special study to be read in Chaucer's day as in ours.

His Canterbury Tales.

Of Chaucer's numerous works the most celebrated is his *Canterbury Tales*, which is still read with delight, and in which thirty pilgrims from all classes are represented as traveling together from London to Canterbury to visit the shrine of St. Thomas à Becket, and as whiling away the tedium of the journey by telling tales, which present lively descriptions of the men and women of his time, in all ranks from sailor to baron, and from doctor to plowman.

Chaucer and Wycliffe.

Chaucer's sympathy with Wycliffe is expressed in his praise of the poor parson—who followed "Christ's lore and his Apostles'" before he taught it to his flock—and in his ridicule of the seller of indulgences with his wallet "full of pardons come from Rome all hot."

Chaucer was a favorite with the king and the nobles, and his poetry breathes the perfumed elegance and luxury of the royal court. Wil-

liam Langland, who styled himself Piers the Plowman, was the people's poet of the time. He sang in ruder and sadder lines the hunger, the toil and the misery of the poor man's life, made dark by his own ignorance and the remorseless oppressions which he suffered from his lords.

William Langland, the People's Poet.

John Gower, called "Moral Gower," was born in 1320, and died in 1402. He was the author of three great poetical works—*Speculum Meditantis*, written in French; *Vox Clamantis*, written in Latin; and *Confessio Amantis*, written in English. The English poem begins by introducing the author himself in the character of an unhappy lover in despair. Venus appears to him; and appoints her priest, called Genius, to hear the lover's confession. This priest plies him with moral tales, the most extraordinary of which is the tale of the Caskets in the fifth book. This is the tale from which Shakespeare is believed to have taken the hint of the incident of the caskets in his Merchant of Venice. Near the end of his English poem, Gower represents Venus as paying a glowing compliment to Chaucer, his friend and brother poet.

John Gower and His Poetical Works.

The war with France and Scotland still continued; and Richard II. invaded Scotland with the design of conquering that kingdom, but failed in that undertaking, though the invasion was conducted with great cruelty. The English arms suffered many disasters in other quarters. The immense English trade with Flanders was cut off by the submission of Ghent and the whole of Flanders to a brother of King Charles the Wise of France. A French army landed in Scotland and threatened an invasion of England. The border lands of England and Scotland were wasted by hostile raids; and in 1388 occurred the battle of Otterburn—a mere border-fight between two hostile noblemen, the English Percy and the Scottish Douglas, and their vassals—which has been commemorated by the famous ballad of *Chevy Chase*.

War with France and Scotland.

English Disasters.

Battle of Otterburn.

Chevy Chase.

The men and means which Parliament voted for the common defense were squandered in Spain by John of Gaunt, Duke of Lancaster, who was seeking to obtain the crown of Castile in his wife's name. The hopes which the decisive conduct of Richard II. had raised during Wat Tyler's Rebellion were soon dispelled. He was fond of shows and pageants, and was profligate and dissipated. He abandoned himself to the influence of favorites, who were as obnoxious to the English people as Gaveston and the Spensers had been during the reign of his great-grandfather, Edward II. The chief of these worthless favorites was Michael de la Pole, a London merchant's son, who was created Duke of Suffolk.

Misrule of John of Gaunt, Richard II. and Michael de la Pole.

The king's profligacy and dissipation, and his partiality for his worthless favorites, made him so unpopular that his youngest and ablest uncle, the Duke of Gloucester, contrived to vest the whole sovereign

Richard II. and a Council of Regency.

Flight of Michael de la Pole.

power in a Council of Regency, consisting of fourteen noblemen, with himself at the head. Richard II. resisted, but was compelled to submit by force of arms in 1387; and his favorite minister, Michæl de la Pole, Duke of Suffolk, only saved his life by flight from the kingdom, while many others of the king's favorites were doomed to exile and death.

Execution of Samuel Burleigh.

The Duke of Gloucester then resolved to destroy all the friends of his royal nephew. The venerable and respected Sir Samuel Burleigh, the young king's tutor, was also condemned on a pretended charge of high treason, through the instrumentality of the king's tyrannical uncle; and he was executed like a common traitor, although the young monarch's good wife, Anne of Bohemia, remained on her knees three hours before the inexorable Duke of Gloucester, begging for the old man's life.

Richard II. Asserts His Own Power.

After Richard II. had submitted to his uncle's tyranny for about a year and a-half, he suddenly asserted his own right to the sovereign power, and removed the officers appointed by the Duke of Gloucester, filling their places with men of ability. He acted with such prudence and vigor that the Duke of Gloucester and his party were thunderstruck and at once relinquished their authority.

The Statute of Præmunire.

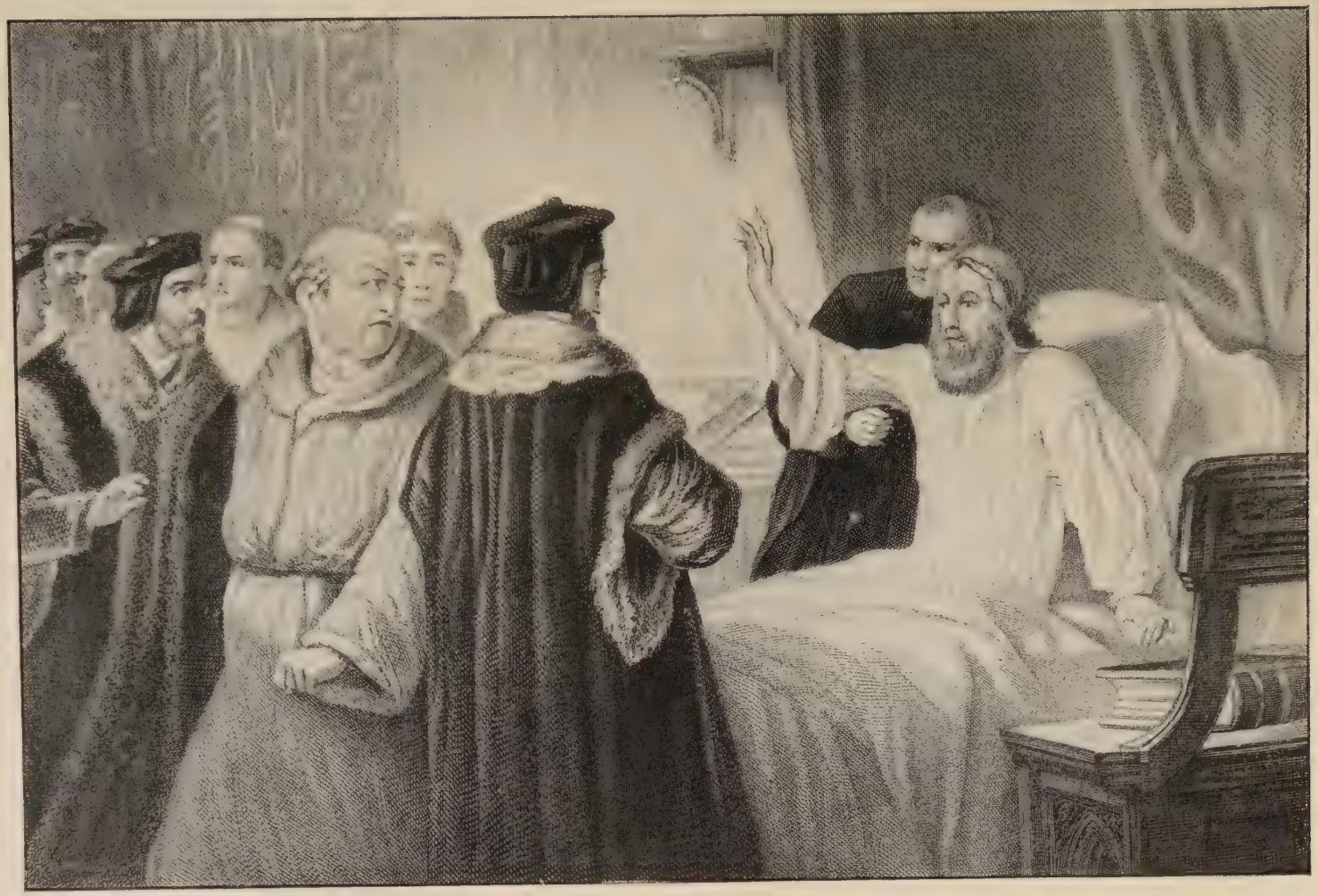
During the reign of Richard II. the effort to maintain the independence of England against papal aggressions was continued with firmness. In 1393 a powerful blow was struck in defense of the liberties of England by Parliament's passage of the *Statute of Præmunire*, "which enacted that whoever should procure from Rome or elsewhere, excommunications, bulls, or other things against the king and his realm, should be put out of the king's protection, and all his lands and goods forfeited."

The First and Second Wives of Richard II.

Richard II. conducted the government himself for nine years and ruled well. His first wife, Anne of Bohemia, who endeared herself to her husband and to the English people, died in 1394; and in 1396 Richard II. affianced the Princess Isabella, the daughter of King Charles VI. of France, then only eight years old. This marriage, and the peace which Richard II. concluded with France, were unpopular with the English people.

Arrest and Imprisonment of the Duke of Gloucester at Calais.

The opposition of the Duke of Gloucester to the peace with France induced the king to free himself from the danger with which he was menaced by his uncle's ambition. Hearing that the Duke of Gloucester was conspiring against him, Richard II. caused his uncle to be seized by surprise, hurried to Calais and imprisoned in the castle of that city. The imprisoned nobleman was charged with high treason, and a Parliament was summoned at Westminster, September 17, 1397, to try him. So many nobles came to London to attend this trial that



WICKLIFFE REFUSING TO RECANT

From the Painting by George Thomas

every lodging place in the city and for ten miles around was filled. On the arrival of the day of the trial the governor of Calais was summoned to bring his illustrious prisoner before Parliament. The governor sent word that the Duke of Gloucester had suddenly died in prison of apoplexy, but it was generally believed that he had been murdered by the king's order. The duke's friends were terrified into submission by the king's bold stroke, and none dared to oppose the king's will.

His Suspicious Death.

Pleased with his new taste of power, and unable to brook opposition, Richard II. endeavored to reign without a Parliament; that body being virtually abolished by a cunningly devised statute, which placed the legislative power in a select number of lords and burgesses, and which granted him a life income and enabled him to resort to forced loans to defray the expenses of government.

Arbitrary Rule of Richard II.

The good and bad impulses by which Richard II. was controlled were both fatal to his power, which, though now apparently more secure than ever, was approaching its downfall. The war-loving barons were offended by the peace with France; the landowners by the protection of the serfs; the merchants by the king's demands for money; and the clergy by the favor which the king showed to Wycliffe's followers and their doctrines.

Growing Unpopularity of Richard II.

Some of the nobles openly accused the king of the murder of the Duke of Gloucester. One day Thomas Mowbray, Duke of Norfolk, expressed this opinion in the presence of the king's cousin, Henry Plantagenet, Duke of Hereford—called Henry of Bolingbroke, from his birth-place, or Henry of Lancaster, he being a son of John of Gaunt, Duke of Lancaster. This young nobleman was an able and valiant knight, who had become celebrated as a good soldier and a zealous Christian by fighting in the cause of Christ against the heathen tribes on the eastern shores of the Baltic. He was a great favorite with the soldiers, possessed immense wealth, and was related to all the great families of England.

Henry of Lancaster, or Bolingbroke, Duke of Hereford.

Henry of Lancaster, Duke of Hereford, was highly indignant at the charge made by the Duke of Norfolk against Richard II., and accused that nobleman in Parliament of having spoken seditious words against the king in a private conversation. The Duke of Norfolk indignantly denied the charge, called Henry of Lancaster a liar, and offered to prove his innocence by an appeal to Wager of Battle. As there were no proofs for a legal trial, the Lords in Parliament readily assented to that mode of settling the controversy. The time and place for the duel were appointed, and all England awaited the event with anxious suspense.

His Duel with Thomas Mowbray, Duke of Norfolk.

On the day when this personal combat between the two noblemen was to take place, and in the presence of the vast multitude assembled to

The Duel Stopped and the Combatants Banished by Richard II.

witness it, just as the trumpets had sounded the charge and the combatants, mounted on their horses, rushed at each other with fixed lances, King Richard II., who appeared upon the scene, threw down his scepter, which was a signal for the heralds to stop the combat. The king then ordered the lances of the combatants to be taken away, and banished the Duke of Hereford for ten years, and the Duke of Norfolk for life.

General Indignation at the King's Action.

Thus one of the combatants was condemned to exile without being charged with any offense, and the other without being convicted of any crime. The king's action gave general dissatisfaction. There was a feeling of disappointment at being deprived of the pleasure of seeing a combat, and of indignation at the injustice done to the duelists themselves.

Death of the Duke of Norfolk.

The Duke of Norfolk, overwhelmed with grief and despondency at the judgment awarded against him, retired to Venice, where he soon died of a broken heart. Henry of Lancaster, Duke of Hereford, behaved on this occasion with such submission and resignation that the king consented to shorten his banishment four years, and granted him letters-patent insuring him the enjoyment of any inheritance which should fall to him during his exile; but upon the death of Henry's father, John of Gaunt, Duke of Lancaster, in 1399, Richard II. seized all the great estates of the Lancaster family.

Seizure of the Lancaster Estates by Richard II.

Return and Revolt of Henry of Lancaster.

Roused to intense indignation by the king's outrage, the exiled Henry of Lancaster sailed from France for England to reclaim his rights, embarking at Nantes with a small retinue, and landing at Ravenspur, in Yorkshire, with about twenty followers, July 4, 1399; Richard II. being then in Ireland. Henry of Lancaster immediately raised the standard of revolt, and was joined by the Earl of Northumberland, who had long been disaffected toward Richard II., and by that powerful nobleman's son, Henry Percy, surnamed *Hotspur*, from his fiery temper and his ardent valor. In a few days Henry's army numbered sixty thousand men, and was soon increased by the royal forces under the king's uncle, the Duke of York, who deserted the king's side when Henry of Lancaster persuaded him that he had come only to claim his inheritance, and not to seize the crown.

Is joined by the Percies and the Duke of York.

Desperate Situation of Richard II.

In the meantime Richard II. remained in Ireland in perfect security. Contrary winds for three weeks prevented him from receiving any news of the rebellion against his authority in England; and when he landed at Milford Haven, in Wales, on his return, with a force of twenty thousand men, he found himself in a dreadful situation, in the midst of an enraged people, without any friend on whom he could rely, and forsaken by those who had been instrumental in encouraging his follies in the time of his prosperity. His little army gradually deserted him,

until at last he discovered that he did not have over six thousand men who followed his standard.

Submission of Richard II. to Henry of Lancaster.

Not knowing whom to trust, or where to turn, Richard II. saw that his only hopes of safety lay in throwing himself upon the generosity of his enemy and in obtaining by pity what he could not win by force of arms. He therefore sent word to Henry of Lancaster that he was ready to submit to whatever terms he deemed proper to impose, and that he earnestly desired a conference. For this purpose Henry of Lancaster requested Richard II. to meet him at Flint Castle, about ten miles from Chester, and there Henry with his army appeared the next day to meet the king.

Meeting of Richard II. and Henry of Lancaster at Flint Castle.

Richard II., who had been brought thither by the Earl of Northumberland the day before, seeing his rival's approach from the walls, went down to receive him; while Henry of Lancaster, after some ceremony, entered the castle in full armor, only his head being bare in compliment to the fallen king. Richard II. received his triumphant rival with that open air for which he had been remarkable, and kindly bade him welcome. Said Henry of Lancaster, with a respectful bow: "My lord king, I am come sooner than you appointed, because your people say that for one and twenty years you have governed with rigor and indiscretion. They are very ill satisfied with your conduct; but, if it please God, I will help you to govern them better for the time to come." To this declaration Richard II. only replied: "Fair cousin, since it pleases you, it pleases us likewise."

Indignities to Richard II. at Chester and Other Towns.

After a short conversation with some of the king's attendants, Henry of Lancaster ordered the king's horses to be brought out of the stable; and when the wretched animals were produced Richard II. was placed on one, while his favorite, the Earl of Salisbury, was placed upon the other. In this humble equipage they rode to Chester, and were conveyed to the castle with a great noise of trumpets, through an immense multitude of people, who were unmoved by the sight. In this manner Richard II. was led from town to town, amid crowds of people, who scoffed at him and extolled his rivals, exclaiming: "Long live the good Duke of Lancaster, our deliverer!" In the poet's pathetic words concerning the king, "None cried God bless him!"

Imprisonment of Richard II. in the Tower of London.

Thus, after repeated indignities from Henry of Lancaster and from the populace, Richard II. was conveyed to London and lodged in the Tower as a close prisoner, where he underwent a still greater variety of studied insolence and flagrant contempt. Humiliated in this manner, the wretched king began to lose a monarch's pride with the splendors of royalty, and his spirit sunk to his circumstances. He therefore willingly signed a deed by which he abdicated the crown of England.

His Abdication.

Richard II. Deposed by Parliament.

Upon the abdication of Richard II., Henry of Lancaster founded his principal claim to the English throne; but, in order to secure his pretensions with every appearance of justice, he convened a Parliament, which was readily induced to approve and confirm his claim. A frivolous charge of thirty-three articles was drawn up and found valid against Richard II., whereupon he was solemnly deposed by act of Parliament; and that body unanimously chose Henry of Lancaster to the English throne with the title of HENRY IV., the new king being conducted to the vacant throne by the Archbishops of Canterbury and York, September 30, 1399. Thus began the royal House of Lancaster, which furnished England with three kings, whose aggregate reigns numbered sixty-two years (A. D. 1399–1461).

Henry IV., First of the House of Lancaster, A. D. 1399–1413.

Imprisonment and Suspicious Death of Richard II. in Pontefract Castle.

When Richard II. was deposed, the Earl of Northumberland made a motion in the House of Lords demanding the advice of Parliament concerning the future treatment of the discrowned king. Parliament decided that he should be imprisoned in some secure place, where his friends and partisans would be unable to find him: and Richard II. was accordingly confined in Pontefract Castle. But the usurper could not hope to remain in safety while the deposed monarch was still living, and some plots and commotions which occurred soon afterward induced Henry IV. to desire the death of his dethroned cousin; and Richard II. was found dead in Pontefract Castle in the beginning of the year 1400, at the age of thirty-three years and after a reign of twenty-two years, believed to have been murdered or starved by the new king's order.

One Account of His Supposed Murder.

Some writers say that an assassin agreed to murder the fallen king for a reward, and that he took eight companions with him for the purpose. When the assassins rushed into the king's apartments in Pontefract Castle the deposed king knew that their design was to murder him, and he determined to sell his life as dearly as possible; wherefore he wrested a pole-ax from one of the murderers and soon laid four of them dead at his feet, but was finally overpowered and struck dead by a blow from a pole-ax.

Conflicting Claims of Henry IV. and Edmund Mortimer, Earl of March.

Though elected King of England by Parliament, Henry IV. was not satisfied to rest his claim on the national will; but asserted that he held the throne by right of his birth, he being the son of John of Gaunt, Duke of Lancaster, and the grandson of Edward III. But, according to the strict principles of hereditary succession, the nearest heir to the English throne was Edmund Mortimer, Earl of March, who was a lineal descendant of Lionel, Duke of Clarence, John of Gaunt's elder brother, and whom Parliament had declared heir to the English crown. The young Earl of March was a child of seven years, and Henry IV. sought to avoid a conflict with his claims by keeping him in a sort of mild captivity at Windsor Castle. As the English crown had always

been in some degree elective, Henry IV. no doubt had all the claim that could be derived from the national will. The conflict between the elective and hereditary principles was not settled until three centuries afterward.

Elective and Hereditary Principles.

Henry IV. soon found that the throne of a usurper is a bed of thorns; as conspiracies and rebellions were still undertaken in the interest of Richard II., who, some of the enemies of Henry claimed, was not dead, and whom some one tried to personate. The nobles taken in arms were beheaded; and, to prevent any more rebellions in the dead king's interest, Henry IV. caused the body of Richard II. to be brought from Pontefract Castle to London, and to be publicly exposed at St. Paul's Cathedral, with the face uncovered for three days; after which it was buried at Langley. Still some of the enemies of Henry IV. claimed that Richard II. was still alive and in exile in Scotland, and that the body shown at St. Paul's Cathedral was that of another person.

Rebellions in the Interest of Richard II.

His Dead Body in St. Paul's Cathedral.

The very first Parliament that convened under Henry IV. gave evidence of the unsettled condition of the kingdom. The House of Lords broke up in a furious quarrel, and forty challenges were given and received, and forty gauntlets were thrown down as pledges of the sincerity of the resentment of the angry barons. Some of the disaffected nobles endeavored to seize King Henry IV. at Windsor; but the king withdrew to London, where he raised an army of the citizens and quelled the outbreak of the discontented lords. The Earls of Kent and Salisbury, and some of the other leaders of the outbreak, were beheaded for their rebellion. A rebellion against the authority of Henry IV. in Gascony was also suppressed. Many plots disturbed the usurping king. One night he found a steel instrument with three sharp points, concealed in his bed, just as he was about to lie down.

Quarrel and Challenges in House of Lords.

Revolts and Plots against Henry IV.

Leaders Beheaded.

The most serious of the rebellions against Henry IV. was that of the Welsh, under Owen Glendower, who claimed descent from the royal race of Llewellyn and the ancient Princes of Wales. As in the time of Edward I., patriot bards, who journeyed from place to place with song and story of the ancient heroes of Welsh history, fired the Welsh heart afresh with its old love of liberty. After being defeated in the open field, Owen Glendower retired to the fastnesses of Mount Snowdon, and defied the whole power of England throughout the reign of Henry IV. For some years after this reign he lived as a wanderer and an outlaw, rejecting all overtures of peace, and sojourning in hidden caves among his native hills. His fate has never been known. A cave still called *Owen's Cave* can be seen on the coast of Merioneth.

Welsh Revolt under Owen Glendower.

His Fate.

Owen's Cave.

In one of his raids into England, Owen Glendower captured Sir Edward Mortimer, the uncle of the young Earl of March, and carried him a prisoner into Wales. Henry IV., dreading and hating the whole of

His Capture of Sir Edward Mortimer.

the Mortimer family, allowed Sir Edward Mortimer to remain in captivity, and refused to permit Mortimer's kinsman, the Earl of Northumberland, to treat with Owen Glendower for his ransom; thus offending the family of the Percies, who were the king's most powerful partisans.

Scottish Invasion of England.

In 1402 a Scottish army of twelve thousand men, under Archibald, Earl of Douglas, invaded England. The Earl of Northumberland and his son, Henry Percy, surnamed *Hotspur*, took the field against the Scots and defeated them at Homildon Hill, in Northumberland, September 14, 1402, taking the Earl of Douglas and many of the leading nobles of Scotland prisoners. Henry IV. sent the victorious Earl of Northumberland strict orders forbidding him to admit any of his prisoners to ransom, as he desired to make better terms with Scotland by the possession of one of the great Scottish nobles. According to the laws of war in that age of Chivalry and Feudalism, the captor had the right to the ransom of his prisoner; and the proud Earl of Northumberland considered himself both insulted and robbed by the king's demand.

Battle of Homildon Hill.

The Percies Offended by Henry IV.

Rebellion of the Percies.

The angry Earl of Northumberland now rebelled against King Henry IV., thus seeking to overthrow the monarch whom he had been chiefly instrumental in raising to the throne of England. He instantly released his Scottish captives, and made an alliance with the Earl of Douglas and with the Welsh leader, Owen Glendower. The Earl of Westmoreland, the brother of the Earl of Northumberland, joined in the rebellion against Henry IV.; and the rebels openly avowed their purpose to dethrone Henry IV. and to place the young Edmund Mortimer, Earl of March, upon the English throne.

Their Allies.

Movements of Henry IV. and His Foes.

Henry IV. had raised a small army, with which he intended to invade Scotland, when he was astounded by the news of the rebellion of the Percies. This rebellion was wholly unexpected by the king, but he was not disconcerted thereby. He fully appreciated the importance of swift and decisive movements in civil wars, and accordingly he at once marched against the rebels. The rebel forces under the Percies and the Scots under the Earl of Douglas marched southward into Shropshire, where they effected a junction with the Welsh under Owen Glendower.

Battle of Shrewsbury.

Henry IV. encountered the combined forces of his enemies at Shrewsbury, July 21, 1403. Each army numbered about twelve thousand men. The battle which ensued was desperate and sanguinary, and the animosities on both sides were inflamed to the highest pitch. Great bravery was displayed by the commanders on both sides. The Earl of Northumberland being absent through illness, the command of his forces devolved on his fiery-tempered son, Henry Percy, Hotspur. Henry IV. displayed great valor, being in the thickest of the fight;

Valor of Henry Percy, Hotspur.

His Defeat and Death.

while his valiant son Henry, the Prince of Wales, fought gallantly by his father's side, and performed astonishing feats of valor even after he had been wounded in the face with an arrow. The daring Hotspur also sustained his renown for bravery, and sought to engage the king in person, but could not distinguish him from others who wore the same armor. The death of Hotspur from an unknown hand finally decided the victory in favor of Henry IV. The Scottish Earl of Douglas was taken prisoner.

Triumph of Henry IV.

The king's victory in the battle of Shrewsbury put an end to the rebellion of the Percies. The Earl of Northumberland threw himself upon the generosity of Henry IV., who, remembering the former services of this powerful baron, and pitying the old man's bereaved condition, pardoned him, and soon afterward restored to him almost all of his honors and estates.

The Elder Percy Pardoned

Rebellion of the Archbishop of York and the Earl Marshal, Thomas Mowbray.

Two years later, A. D. 1405, another rebellion broke out against Henry IV., headed by Scrope, Archbishop of York, and Thomas Mowbray, Earl Marshal of England; and the rebels were joined by the Earl of Northumberland, who had again taken up arms against the king; but the outbreak was quickly quelled, and Archbishop Scrope was beheaded as a traitor—the first instance of a bishop being punished with death in England. This was considered a sacrilegious act, and Henry IV. was soon afterward afflicted with a loathsome eruption in the face, which was believed to be a direct punishment from Heaven. After several years of exile and wandering, the Earl of Northumberland finally lost his life in a last effort to overthrow Henry IV.

Archbishop Scrope Beheaded.

Robert III. of Scotland and the Duke of Albany.

By accident Henry IV. got the heir to the Scottish throne into his possession. King Robert III. of Scotland stood in deadly fear of his violent and unscrupulous brother, the Duke of Albany, who had already caused the heir-apparent to be starved in a dungeon, and who appeared resolved to make his way to the throne of Scotland by destroying the lives of all the legitimate heirs. To save his only surviving son's life, King Robert III. sent this son, Prince James, to France, in 1406; but the vessel in which the Scottish prince sailed was seized by an English cruiser, although a state of peace then existed between England and Scotland; and the prince, then nine years of age, was detained by Henry IV., and remained a state prisoner in England for over eighteen years, two of which were spent in the Tower, and sixteen in Windsor Castle.

Prince James of Scotland and His Captivity in England.

Order of Henry IV.

Upon being brought before Henry IV., the Earl of Orkney, who accompanied the young prince, told the English king that the prince was going to France to learn French; whereupon Henry IV. replied: "I understand French, and therefore ought to be intrusted with his education." Henry IV. then committed Prince James and the Earl of Orkney to the Tower. Grief at his son's capture broke the heart of

Death of Robert III. from Grief.

poor old King Robert III., who died three days after he had received the news. His brother, the Duke of Albany, ruled Scotland as regent for the remaining eighteen years of his life, but would do nothing to obtain the release of Prince James.

Education of the Captive Prince.

Henry IV. made some amends for his injustice by giving the captive Scottish prince the best education afforded by the times. The prince was provided with good instructors, and became the famous "Poet-King of Scotland." He was a poetic genius, and some of his ballads continue to be popular to the present day. He was released upon the death of the Duke of Albany in 1424, when he became King James I. of Scotland. He married Lady Joanna Beaufort, an English princess, for whom he had formed an attachment while in prison. James I. was the best king that ever reigned over Scotland, and his name is reverenced by his countrymen to this day.

His Reign as James I. of Scotland.

Persecution of the Lollards by Henry IV.

Henry IV. sought to please the clergy by persecuting the Lollards, and the fires of persecution were kindled in England for the first time in her history. As the Archbishop of Canterbury had given Henry IV. valuable aid in his efforts to secure the English crown, the king in his turn assisted the Roman Church with all his power to root out Wycliffe's doctrines, which had taken a strong hold upon the English people.

Statute of Heretics.

An act of Parliament, passed in 1401 and called the *Statute of Heretics*, empowered the bishops to imprison all writers, teachers and preachers of heresy, and, if they refused to abjure their heretical doctrines, to hand them over to the civil authorities to be burned. Under this cruel law, William Sawtre, a London preacher, was the first martyr at the stake in England. After being condemned by the bishops, he was handed over to the civil authorities and burned to death, in accordance with the Statute of Heretics, February 12, 1401.

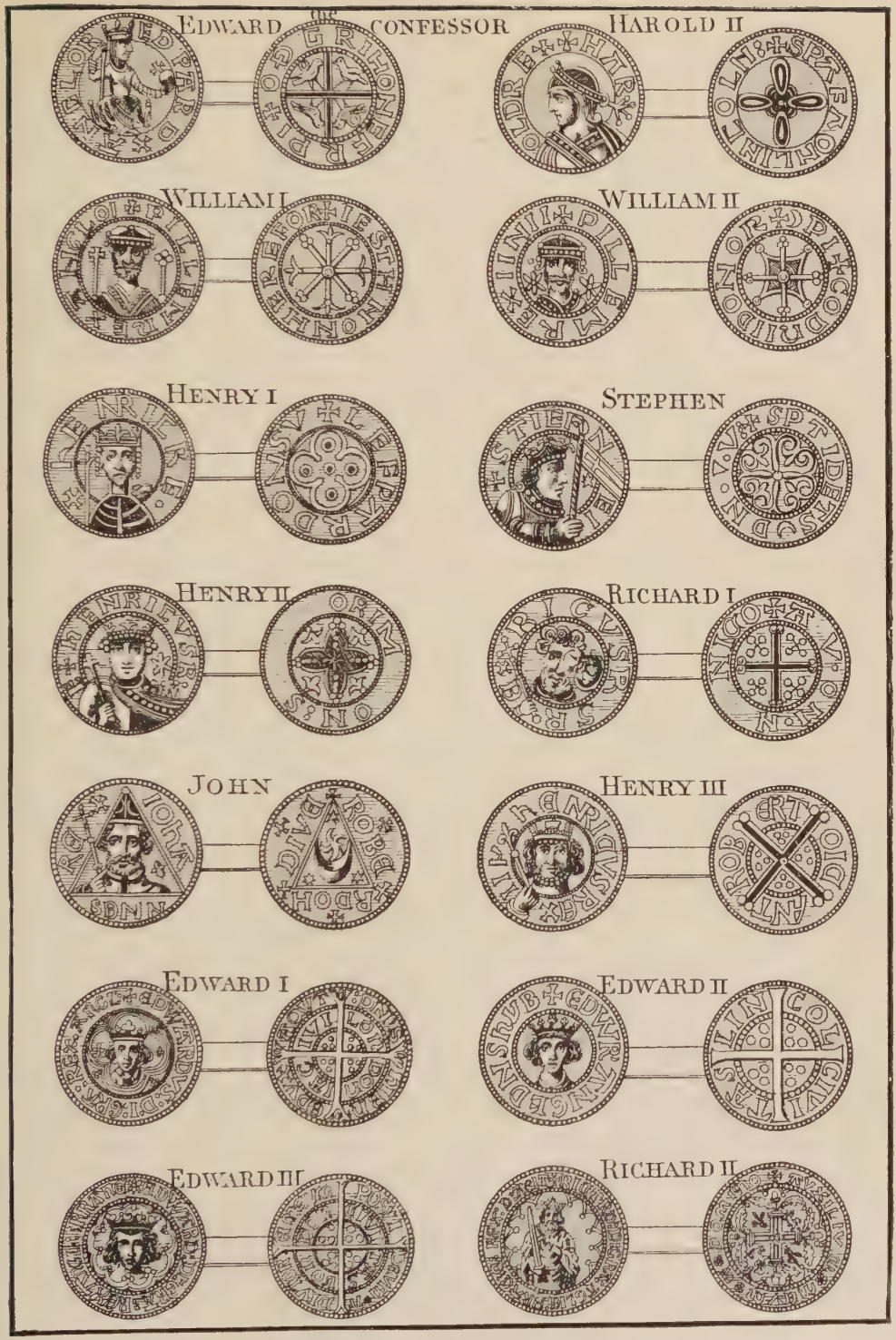
William Sawtre's Martyrdom.

Beginning of Religious Intolerance.

Thus Henry IV. has the infamous reputation of being the first King of England who imposed by statute the awful penalty of death by fire upon his subjects simply on account of religious belief. Thus was commenced the system of horrible religious intolerance that blackens the pages of English history for so long a period—an intolerance whose only palliation is the spirit of the age.

The Commons Side with the Lollards

But the Commons in Parliament were not as subservient to the priests as the Lords. When it was found that the clergy were resolved to resist the payment of their share of the taxes of the kingdom, notwithstanding their vast wealth, the Commons sided with the Lollards in order to check the power of the priesthood. The Commons asked the king for a mitigation of the law of burning, and advised him to seize the wealth of the Church and employ it as a permanent fund to serve the necessities of the state. They even framed a bill for this purpose.



ENGLISH COINS, FROM EDWARD THE CONFESSOR TO RICHARD II

John Badbie's Martyrdom.

But Henry IV. refused to mitigate the law against heretics, saying that he wished one more severe had been passed, and to show the Commons that he was in earnest he immediately signed the death-warrant of John Badbie, a poor tailor, for holding Wycliffe's doctrines; and thus another martyr perished at the stake. Instead of checking the growth of Lollardism, these barbarous measures only served to extend the new doctrines.

Anxiety, Remorse and Suspicions of Henry IV.

The position of Henry IV. as King of England was an unenviable one. He lived in constant dread of the Lollards, who were known to be active in inciting insurrections. He was also conscience-smitten at the part he had taken in the persecution of that sect, as well as at the means which he had employed to obtain the English crown. He was obliged to be ever on the alert against the friends of the murdered Richard II. and those of the living Edmund Mortimer, Earl of March. His consciousness of the irregular manner of his own accession made him suspicious of his own son Henry, Prince of Wales, of whose constantly growing popularity he was morbidly jealous. This feeling made the king stern and cruel to all whom he suspected of plotting against him.

Prince Henry's Assault of Chief Justice Gascoigne.

Henry IV. was also a sufferer from ill health, and was distressed at the wild and reckless conduct of his son Henry, the Prince of Wales, called *Madcap Harry*. This prince led a most disorderly life. One of his companions was arrested for a highway robbery, and was brought before Chief Justice Gascoigne for trial. The evidence was strong against the prisoner, but the prince demanded that he should be released. The Chief Justice refused to comply with the prince's insolent demand; whereupon the prince became so angry as to forget himself, and he actually struck the Chief Justice as he sat upon the bench. The judge vindicated the dignity of his office by sending Prince Henry to prison. The prince at once acknowledged the impropriety of his conduct toward the judge, and submitted to the punishment. Upon hearing of this, the king exclaimed: "Happy the monarch who possesses a judge so resolute in the discharge of his duty, and a son so willing to submit to the law!"

The Prince's Imprisonment by the Chief Justice.

Epileptic Fits and Anxiety of Henry IV

Prince Henry and the Royal Crown.

The king's health now rapidly declined. He was shattered mentally and physically by epileptic fits, which hurried him to a premature grave. As his strength declined his fears of conspiracies and insurrections increased even to childish anxiety, and he could not sleep unless the royal crown was laid upon his pillow. One day, when he had fallen down in a fit of epilepsy, the Prince of Wales, believing him actually dead, took the crown from his pillow and carried it away. When the king recovered his consciousness he instantly missed his crown, and sternly asked who had dared to remove it. Prince Henry made a dutiful apology, thus pacifying the king, who said with a sigh: "Alas!

fair son, what right have you to the crown when you know your father has none?" The prince replied: "My liege, with your sword you won it, and with the sword I will keep it." The king replied: "Well, do as you please; I leave the issue to God, and hope he will have mercy on my soul."

Death of Henry IV.

Soon afterward Henry IV. died in a fit of epilepsy, while kneeling in prayer before the shrine of Edward the Confessor in Westminster Abbey, March 20, 1413, at the age of forty-four years, and after a reign of thirteen years. Shakespeare's sage reflection on the stormy years of the reign of Henry IV. was: "Uneasy lies the head that wears a crown." The Commons greatly increased their power during his reign—a natural result when the king's best title to his crown rested upon their consent.

Power of the Commons.

Henry V., A. D. 1413–1422.

Henry V., the son and successor of Henry IV., had a short but brilliant reign. As soon as he heard of his father's death he retired to his own chamber and spent the remainder of the day in prayer. The next morning he sent for the companions of his youthful follies and told them that he was going to reform and lead a better life, and forbade them to come again into his presence until they should follow his example by reforming their habits of life. He then sent for his father's wise ministers, who had checked his wild and reckless conduct, and retained them in office. Among these was Chief Justice Gascoigne, who had sent Henry to prison for interfering with the course of justice, as we have observed.

His Personal Reformation.

Henry V. and Edmund Mortimer.

Thus Henry V. happily disappointed those who feared that the reckless prince would make a reckless king. He did much to conciliate the enemies of the House of Lancaster by several just and noble acts at the very beginning of his reign. He pacified the House of York by releasing the imprisoned Edmund Mortimer, Earl of March, and honoring the bones of Richard II. with a truly royal burial among the remains of the Kings of England in Westminster Abbey. Mortimer showed his gratitude by disclosing to the king a plot formed by some nobles to place him on the English throne. Henry V. won the support of the powerful family of the Percies by recalling the son of Hotspur and restoring to him all the honors and estates of his family.

Characteristics and Popularity of Henry V.

Henry V. was the idol of his subjects, for his extraordinary talents in war and government, and also for his gay and genial disposition, which formed a strong contrast to his father's gloomy temper. He possessed in a great degree the qualities which were most calculated to make him a favorite with the English people. His person was tall and slender, his hair was dark, and his features were exceedingly beautiful. His accession to the English throne was hailed with general joy on the part of his subjects.

Henry V. and the Lollards.

But Henry V. stained his character by a cruel persecution of the Lollards, whose doctrines had been gradually spreading, not only in England, but also in Continental Europe. Through the influence of Wycliffe's writings, John Huss, Rector of the University of Prague, in Bohemia, had become a convert to Lollardism, and openly preached it until he was silenced at the stake by command of the Council of Constance in 1415.

Wycliffe's Ashes Scattered.

It was in the early part of the reign of Henry V., thirty years after Wycliffe's death, that the Council of Constance, which condemned John Huss and Jerome of Prague to suffer the death of martyrs at the stake, caused Wycliffe's remains to be disinterred and burned, and his ashes to be cast into a little brook that runs past Lutterworth. Said Fuller: "Thus the brook conveyed his ashes into Avon; Avon into Severn; Severn into the narrow seas; they into the main ocean; and thus the ashes of Wycliffe are the emblem of his doctrine, which is dispersed over all the world." And Wordsworth wrote the following beautiful lines concerning the scattering of Wycliffe's ashes:

Fuller's Remark.

Wordsworth's Lines.

"As thou these ashes, little brook, wilt bear
Into the Avon—Avon to the tide
Of Severn—Severn to the narrow seas—
Into main ocean they—this deed accurst,
An emblem yields to friends and enemies,
How the bold teacher's doctrine, sanctified
By truth, shall spread throughout the world dispersed."

Charles Knight's Remark.

Charles Knight, the popular English historian, truly said: "Out of Wycliffe's rectory, at Lutterworth, seeds were to be borne upon the wind which would abide in the earth till they sprang up into the stately growth of other centuries."

Sir John Oldcastle, Lord Cobham.

Early in the reign of Henry V., Arundel, Archbishop of Canterbury, perceived the necessity of acting more vigorously and rigorously toward "the new heresy." The leader of the Lollards in England was Sir John Oldcastle, who was created Lord Cobham, and whose castle was a place of refuge for the Lollards. Sir John Oldcastle had been an old friend of Henry V., and had formerly been very wicked, but from the time that he adopted Wycliffe's doctrines he had lived a moral and religious life. The king, inspired by his old friendship for Sir John Oldcastle, and thinking him a very wise and virtuous man, sought to convince him of the fallacy of his new opinions. After a long conversation, Henry V. became so shocked at Oldcastle's obstinacy in defense of his faith that he turned him over to the vengeance of the Roman Church.

Oldcastle, or Lord Cobham, was imprisoned in the Tower; and, after being tried and condemned by the bishops for disbelieving the doctrine

His Condemnation, Imprisonment and Escape.

of transubstantiation and other Catholic dogmas, he was delivered into the hands of the civil authorities to be burned to death. The king again interposed, granting him a respite of fifty days, during which Lord Cobham escaped from the Tower, and was suspected of planning a Lollard insurrection against the king. This act added treason to heresy; and the king dreaded to see Lord Cobham, who was an experienced soldier, at the head of the movement.

Persecution of the Lollards.

Henry V. at once took a decided stand against the First Reformation, and the most violent persecution followed. The severest statutes were enacted by Parliament, ordering the arrest of all persons, even if only suspected of heresy, and entailing forfeiture of estate and blood on all who were convicted. A price was set on the head of Lord Cobham, and many of his followers suffered martyrdom. Lord Cobham concealed himself for four years, but was finally captured, and was first hanged at London as a traitor, after which his body was burned as a heretic, to combine the punishments due to the two crimes of treason and heresy. The charge of treason did much to bring the Lollards into disrepute, and the First Reformation was soon at an end in all that was outward and visible.

Lord Cobham's Martyrdom.

Suppression of the First Reformation.

The First Reformation had declined among the influential classes on account of its connection with Wat Tyler's Rebellion during the reign of Richard II. Some of the leaders of the Lollards, lacking the singleness of purpose that inspired Wycliffe, sought to bring about the abolition of social distinctions and the equalization of property—our modern Communism. In addition to this, the First Reformation, at the time of its suppression during the reign of Henry V., rested under the odium of conspiring to subvert the government. Thus branded as Communistic and dangerous to society, and as revolutionary and destructive to public order, the First Reformation had arrayed the rich and powerful, also the more thoughtful and conservative, against itself. Though the Reformation ceased to exist outwardly, there was all the time a simple and a purer faith taking root in the hearts of many—a faith based on the open Bible that Wycliffe had placed in their hands.

Renewal of the Hundred Years' War with France.

Henry IV. on his death-bed had charged his son not to let the English remain long at peace, as foreign wars alone could save England from internal troubles; and Henry V. followed his father's advice by renewing the Hundred Years' War with France, reviving the old claim of Edward III. to the French crown. The title of Henry V. to his English crown required to be strengthened by military renown. His barons' thirst for stirring adventures might have made trouble at home if it had not been gratified abroad. Henry V. renewed the attack on France at an opportune moment. King Charles VI. was insane; and his son, the Dauphin, was too young to rule; while the Dukes of Bur-

gundy and Orleans had involved France in a sanguinary civil war concerning the regency during the Dauphin's minority.

Invasion of France by Henry V.

When the demand of Henry V. that the French should acknowledge his claim to the crown of France and that the Princess Catharine should be given in marriage to him was rejected, he assembled a fleet and army at Southampton and crossed the English Channel and invaded France, landing at Harfleur, in Normandy, with a well-equipped and powerful army of thirty thousand men, in August, 1415. He captured that place in September, 1415, after a siege of five weeks, but lost two-thirds of his army by sickness and death.

His Capture of Harfleur.

His Perilous Situation.

Henry V. was now in a perilous situation. He sent his ships away with his sick and wounded, and he had no means of returning to England but by marching to Calais with his remaining ten thousand troops. The whole distance lay through the enemy's country. There were strong towns to pass, and deep rivers to cross; while a French army of a hundred thousand men was already in the field to oppose his progress. Against the advice of his nobles, he undertook his march for Calais, starting from Harfleur in October, 1415, and following the old route of Edward III.

Henry V. and His Troops.

Henry V. proceeded by easy marches and enforced the strictest discipline. He paid the country people liberally for everything that he obtained from them, and they accordingly brought him supplies of provisions, in spite of the orders that they received not to do so. During the march the young king fared no better than the meanest soldier, and he encouraged his troops by the cheerful and familiar manner in which he conversed with them.

Battle of Agincourt.

The French army, one hundred thousand strong, was drawn up to oppose the English king's little army of ten thousand men at the village of Agincourt, in the county of Artois, not far from the famous field of Creçy. In the battle of Agincourt, October 25, 1415, although the French army was ten times as large as his own, the superior skill and efficiency of the English archers prevailed, and Henry V. won as brilliant a victory over the flower of the chivalry of France as those of Edward III. and the Black Prince at Creçy and Poitiers.

Day before the Battle.

The day before the battle Henry V. took his position on a rising ground, surrounded by trees and brushwood. He placed guards and lighted fires; and the army, excepting some who passed the night in prayer, retired to rest. As some of the English nobles were conversing together, one of them said that he wished all the brave men in England were there to help them. The king answered: "No! I would not have one more here. If we are defeated, we are too many; but if it please God to give us the victory, as I trust He will, the smaller our number, the greater our glory." The French passed the night in noisy

festivity; and, confident of victory on the morrow, they agreed among themselves to put all the English to the sword, excepting the king and the principal nobles, who were to be spared for their ransoms.

The English Archers. Heavy rains had made the ground difficult for cavalry, while the English light-armed archers were able to move with ease. These opened the battle with one well-aimed volley of arrows; after which they seized the hatchets which hung from their necks, and rushed forward with a deafening shout, thus increasing the confusion of the wounded Frenchmen and horses before them. The gallant knights and gentlemen of France, weighted with their steel armor, sank to their saddle-girths in mud and marsh.

Valor of Henry V. Henry V. displayed a valor worthy of the Black Prince. Arrayed in shining armor, with a gold crown adorned with precious gems on his head, he was easily to be distinguished in the thickest of the conflict. Eighteen French knights had made a vow to kill or take the English king, and they all lost their lives in attempting to fulfill their vow, being all slain by David Cam, the English king's faithful squire, and two other Welshmen, who lost their own lives in defending their king. Henry V. knighted these brave men on the battlefield, as their life-blood was ebbing away at his feet.

French Defeat and Heavy Losses. The French lines gave way one by one, and after a battle of three hours the English victory was won. The French left ten thousand dead upon the field; among whom were seven princes of the blood royal, over a hundred noblemen, and eight thousand knights. The Constable d'Albret and the Dukes of Alençon and Brabant were among the slain, while the Dukes of Orleans and Bourbon were among the fourteen thousand prisoners taken by the victorious English. This battle destroyed the old nobility of France, and left the French throne unsupported. The English loss was only about forty men.

The Name Agincourt. When this remarkable battle was ended, Henry V. called upon the French herald, who was named *Mountjoy*, and asked him what was the name of a neighboring castle, to which he pointed with his finger. The herald replied: "It is called Agincourt." Then said the English king: "This action shall henceforth be called *the Battle of Agincourt*."

The Brilliant English Victory. Considering all the circumstances, the battle of Agincourt, which added new glory to the English arms and new laurels to the English kings, was the most brilliant victory ever gained by English soldiers over the soldiers of France. Agincourt at once took its place beside Crecy and Poitiers, but outshone both those famous conflicts. But the expense of maintaining a modern army made the victory almost useless to the English; and Henry V., after making his way to Calais unopposed, crossed the Strait of Dover to England, "covered with glory and buried in debt."

Triumphal Popular Welcome to Henry V. in England.

The English people gave their warrior king a joyful welcome when he returned from his brilliant campaign. They rushed into the water as he approached the land, and bore him on their shoulders to the shore. Throngs of delighted people from all the towns went out to meet him, strewing flowers in his path. His entrance into London finds a parallel in the magnificent Triumphs which the people of ancient Rome gave to their returning victors.

Second Invasion of F ance by Henry V.

All efforts at a permanent peace failed; and in August, 1417, Henry V. again invaded France, landing in Normandy with a well-equipped army of forty thousand men, when France was once more distracted by the quarrels of its own nobles and princes. Towns and castles in Normandy surrendered at the summons of Henry V., or fell before his assaults. The siege of Rouen lasted six months. Its two hundred thousand inhabitants refused to open their gates until reduced to the most desperate extremities by famine. Said Henry V.: "War has three handmaidens—Fire, Blood and Famine; and I have chosen the meekest maid of the three." While the merciless English king was drawing his lines closer around the devoted city, Famine was doing its terrible work within its walls. One-half of the inhabitants of Rouen had perished; and the survivors, in despair, had resolved to burn the city and die in battle before its walls, when Henry V., fearing that Fire and Blood would finally deprive him of his coveted prize, offered the inhabitants terms of capitulation, January, 1419.

His Siege and Capture of Rouen.

His Alliance with the Burgundian Party in France.

By the capture of Rouen, Henry V. completed the conquest of Normandy; and an event that occurred soon afterward hastened and completed the conquest of France. After a solemn treaty of peace between Duke John the Fearless of Burgundy and the Dauphin Charles, the former was assassinated by a servant of the latter, A. D. 1419. The murdered Burgundian duke's son and successor, Philip the Good, in revenge, formed an alliance with the King of England; and the entire Burgundian party threw itself into the scale against the Dauphin, offering to do all in their power to make Henry V. King of France.

Treaty of Troyes.

Royal Intermarriages.

Henry V. and the French Crown.

By the Treaty of Troyes, in May, 1420, concluded with Henry V. of England by Duke Philip the Good of Burgundy and Isabella of Bavaria, the wife of the poor old crazy King Charles VI. of France, it was agreed that Henry V. should marry the Princess Catharine, the daughter of the French king; while the English king's brother, the Duke of Bedford, was to marry a sister of the Duke of Burgundy. Charles VI. was to remain King of France during his life-time; but Henry V. of England was invested with the regency of France for the same period, and was to receive the French crown upon the death of the crazy French king, to the exclusion of the latter's son, the Dauphin Charles. The States-General of France solemnly ratified this treaty.

Union of the Crowns of England and France.

Kings Henry V. and Charles VI. made a triumphal entry into Paris in May, 1420, just after the Treaty of Troyes had been agreed to; and the union of the crowns of England and France was celebrated with great outward demonstrations of joy. In accordance with the Treaty of Troyes, Henry V. married the Princess Catharine, June 2, 1420; and the next year she bore him a son, an event celebrated with equal rejoicings in the capitals of England and France. But the Dauphin Charles refused to submit to the loss of his inheritance, and held that part of France south of the Loire, while the King of England was in possession of almost all of the French kingdom north of that great river.

The Dauphin Charles.

Death of Henry V. in France.

While engaged in the task of establishing his authority in France, in the very prime of life and the very midst of his power and glory, Henry V. was suddenly attacked with a painful and incurable illness, of which he died at Vincennes, August 31, 1422, at the age of thirty-three years, and after a reign of nine years; after appointing his brother, the Duke of Bedford, regent of France, and his other brother, the Duke of Gloucester, regent of England, while committing the guardianship of his infant son to the Earl of Warwick. His body was conveyed to England with great pomp and buried in Westminster Abbey. Tapers were kept burning on his tomb day and night for almost a century. His widow married Owen Tudor, a Welsh gentleman, and from them was descended the renowned Tudor dynasty of England.

His Burial in Westminster Abbey.

The First English War Ship.

The first ship of war ever owned by the English government was built during the reign of Henry V. Previous to this period the maritime towns had furnished all the ships required for war or national purposes. During the reign of Henry V. it was settled that no laws should be valid without the assent of the House of Commons.

Henry VI., A. D. 1422–1461.

Crowned at Paris as King of England and France.

Henry VI., the infant son of Henry V., was proclaimed King of England, upon his father's death; and, upon the death of the poor old crazy King Charles VI., two months later, he was also proclaimed King of France, and was crowned at Paris as King of England and France, being then only nine months old, A. D. 1422. The infant king's uncles —the Duke of Gloucester, regent of England, and the Duke of Bedford, regent of France—were men of integrity and excellent virtues; the Duke of Gloucester being called the "Good Duke Humphrey."

Charles VII. of France.

His Desperate Situation.

The Dauphin, the son of Charles VI., had never consented to the Treaty of Troyes, which set aside his claims to the French throne; and, upon the death of his father, in 1422, he assumed the title of Charles VII., King of France. The English wittingly called him "King of Bourges," that city being the extent of his actual dominion, though the sovereignty of France was his birth-right. For six years the English were constantly victorious, taking town after town, until in 1428 they laid siege to Orleans, the only important stronghold yet remaining in

LORD SAY AND SELE BEFORE JACK CADE

From the Painting by Charles Lucy

the possession of the Dauphin's troops. The capture of that city by the English would have exposed to them the whole of France south of the Loire, and the cause of Charles VII. would have been irretrievably ruined. This danger filled the French with consternation.

Jeanne d'Arc, the Maid of Orleans.

At this darkest hour in the fortunes of France and her legitimate, native king, when no gleam of hope appeared visible, Orleans was relieved and the deliverance of Charles VII. effected by one of the most extraordinary occurrences in history. In the history of France we have related the remarkable career of Jeanne d' Arc, the poor peasant girl of Domremy, in Lorraine; her visions of angels and "Voices," which she declared told her to raise the siege of Orleans and have Charles VII. crowned at Rheims; the faith of the French king and people in her mission; her commission from Charles VII. to command the French armies; her appearance at the head of the army destined to raise the siege of Orleans, when she was clad in armor and mounted on a snow-white horse, with her consecrated banner borne before her; the irresistible enthusiasm which she inspired among the French and the dismay which she caused among the English; her rescue of Orleans by entering the city and compelling the English to raise the siege; her repeated victories over the English; her capture of Rheims, in which city Charles VII. was then crowned; her expressed desire to return to her father's home to take care of his flocks; the French king's refusal to consent to her retirement from the army; the jealousy of the French officers on account of her fame; their treacherous abandonment of her at a sally from the town of Compèigne, where they allowed her to be taken prisoner by the Duke of Burgundy, who sold her to the English; and the base conduct of the English, who caused her to be tried, condemned and burned by a court of bishops as a witch and a heretic, at Rouen, May 30, 1431.

Her Wonderful Deliverance of France.

Her Capture and Cruel Death at the Stake.

The Memory of Her Martyrdom.

Though her ungrateful king made no effort to rescue the valiant *Maid of Orleans,* as the heroine was called, and took no interest in her fate, her name is held in grateful remembrance by her countrymen, and excites a tender respect and admiration wherever the strange, sad story of her wonderful career is told; and this is a far nobler and more enduring monument to her than the one erected to her memory on the spot where she suffered a martyr's death.

Crumbling of the English Dominion in France.

Although the Maid of Orleans no longer led the French armies, victory still perched upon the French banners, the spell of English ascendency was broken, and the English dominion in France was fast hastening to a close. All France submitted to her hereditary and legitimate king when a reconciliation was effected between Duke Philip the Good of Burgundy and King Charles VII., who then hurled their united forces against the English invaders. The Duke of Bedford soon after-

ward died of vexation at the disasters which had befallen the English cause. Paris opened her gates to Charles VII., and the English power gradually grew weaker and weaker during the remaining twenty years of the war.

Expulsion of the English from all France Except Calais.

The English fought bravely, but were defeated on every side, and finally retired into Normandy in the hope that they might at least save that province. A truce and a treaty both failed to stop the war. Normandy in the North of France, and Guienne in the South, both revolted from the English dominion. The English were steadily driven toward the sea-board, though they fought with desperate valor, and they finally sought refuge within the walls of Calais, which was the only place in France that remained in their possession by 1453, when the Hundred Years' War finally closed, and the dream of an English empire in France was over.

End of the English Conquests in France.

The campaigns of Edward III. and the Black Prince, and those of Henry V., were brilliant, but unsubstantial, gratifying the national pride of the English, but exhausting their national resources. As soon as those great warriors retired from the scenes of their triumphs and conquests, those conquests melted away like mist before the rising sun.

SECTION V.—LATER PLANTAGENETS AND CIVIL WARS OF THE ROSES (A. D. 1455–1485).

Weak Character of Henry VI.

Henry VI. was a man of weak intellect and of gentle and amiable disposition. He was a most insignificant character, and would have been satisfied to remain in the background his entire life, as his timid and quiet disposition entirely unfitted him for the cares of royalty. He inherited neither the fine qualities nor the majestic figure of his father, nor any of the delicate beauty of his mother. His personal appearance was inelegant, and his countenance was dull and unmeaning. An old historian thus describes his character:

An Old Historian's Account.

"There never was a more holy, nor a better creature, a man of a meek spirit and a simple wit, preferring peace to war, and rest to business, and honesty before profit. He was governed of those he should have ruled, and bridled of those he should have sharply spurred."

His Infancy and Childhood.

When Henry VI. was only eight months old he was kept quiet in his mother's lap to listen, or rather to appear to listen, to a long address from Parliament, in which he was called a "most toward prince and sovereign governor." When he was eight years old he was solemnly crowned at Paris as King of France.

Beauchamp, Earl of Warwick.

But Henry VI. was very fortunate in having a wise and sincere friend in the good old Beauchamp, Earl of Warwick, who reprimanded the

king when he was eleven years old, and desired that the Royal Council would in a body admonish him of his faults.

Rival Parties of the Duke of Gloucester and Cardinal Beaufort.

The death of the Duke of Bedford produced effects in England almost as disastrous as in France. England was divided between two parties, led respectively by the Duke of Gloucester, the king's uncle and the regent of the kingdom, and by this duke's uncle, Cardinal Beaufort, a son of John of Gaunt. One great object of rivalry between these two men was the choice of a wife for the young king.

Margaret of Anjou, Wife of Henry VI.

As Henry VI. was of a gentle and harmless disposition, and resembled his imbecile maternal grandfather, King Charles VI. of France, rather than the three great Kings of England from whom he was more immediately descended, it was hoped that a spirited wife of masculine qualities would supply his defects; and the Beaufort party selected a French princess, Margaret of Anjou, reputed to be the most beautiful, clever and accomplished princess of her time, though she was then only fifteen years old. The Beaufort party succeeded in their plan, and a secret article of the marriage contract ceded England's province of Maine, in France, to Margaret's uncle, Duke Charles of Anjou. The marriage between Henry VI. and Margaret of Anjou occurred in 1445.

Her Enmity to the Duke of Gloucester.

The new queen became a warm adherent of the Beaufort party, which had secured her marriage. She never forgave the Duke of Gloucester for opposing it, and she came to England vowing vengeance against him in her heart. Cardinal Beaufort and William de la Pole, Duke of Suffolk, were her willing allies in her opposition to the good Duke of Gloucester, who had tried to prevent the marriage because he foresaw the miseries that it would entail upon the kingdom.

The Duke of Gloucester's Wife Imprisoned on the Isle of Man for Witchcraft.

Cardinal Beaufort and the Duke of Suffolk commenced their machinations by accusing Eleanor Cotham, the wife of the Duke of Gloucester, of witchcraft. She was charged with having caused a waxen image of the king to be made and laid before a gentle fire, and as the wax dissolved the king's strength was wasted, so that his life would become extinct upon the total dissolution of the waxen image. The Duke of Gloucester's wife was found guilty upon this absurd charge, and was condemned to do public penance and then to be imprisoned for life on the Isle of Man. To prove that she was a witch a paper of mathematical figures written by her priest was produced, and the ignorance of the people who found it believed it to be some very mysterious magical incantation.

Imprisonment and Suspicious Death of the Duke of Gloucester.

Supported by the queen, Cardinal Beaufort and the Duke of Suffolk next sought the ruin of the Duke of Gloucester himself. They accused him of high treason; but the council, though composed wholly of his enemies, was obliged to pronounce him innocent of this charge. Nevertheless, he was imprisoned, and soon afterward found dead in his bed,

believed to have been murdered by his enemies. His wicked uncle, Cardinal Beaufort, died several weeks afterward in agonies of remorse.

English Discontent at the Losses in France.

Queen Margaret was unpopular with the English people. When her kinsman, King Charles VII. of France, reconquered Normandy and Guienne from the English, they suspected the same kind of treachery that had deprived them of Maine; and though they were generally unwilling to vote money for the king's wars in France, which were really opposed to their interests, they considered the loss of any conquered territory as a national disgrace.

Desperate Situation of Henry VI.

Poor King Henry VI. was then at a low ebb in his fortunes. The crown-lands and revenues had been squandered during his minority, and his household was only maintained by a system of robbery politely styled the "royal right of purveyance."

Accusation, Exile and Execution of the Duke of Suffolk.

The popular indignation at this state of affairs, and at the loss of the English possessions in France, forced Parliament to bring charges of high treason against the Duke of Suffolk in 1450. Queen Margaret hoped to save him from summary vengeance by inducing the king to banish him for five years. But his enemies, fearing that Margaret would recall him, caused him to be pursued on the high seas by a large vessel, called *Nicholas of the Tower*. He was overtaken and ordered on board this ship, and as he reached its deck he was greeted with the salutation: "Welcome, traitor." He was brought to Dover, and two days later he was let down into a small boat and beheaded with a rusty sword on a block of wood, his body being cast into the sea, to make sure that he would never be recalled.

Edmund Beaufort, Duke of Somerset.

Edmund Beaufort, Duke of Somerset, a relative of the king and a favorite of the queen, was held responsible for the more recent losses of English territory in France; but he continued to defy his enemies and remained in office a while longer.

Jack Cade's Rebellion.

In 1450, soon after the murder of the Duke of Suffolk, several insurrections broke out in various parts of England, but these were all soon suppressed. The most formidable of these revolts was that of Jack Cade, an Irishman, who assumed the more dignified name of John Mortimer, intending to pass himself off as a son of Sir John Mortimer, who had been sentenced to death by Parliament at the beginning of this reign, without any trial or evidence, merely upon an indictment of high treason. Sir John Mortimer had been popular in Kent, the seat of Jack Cade's Rebellion; and his name gave Jack Cade his chief strength.

Its Comparison with Wat Tyler's Rebellion.

Jack Cade's Rebellion grew out of the general discontent at the mismanagement of affairs at home and in France. It is an interesting fact that Jack Cade's Rebellion had its chief seat in Kent, the old home of Wat Tyler, and among the very classes which had been implicated in Wat Tyler's Rebellion.

Jack Cade's March to London.

Jack Cade led twenty thousand Kentishmen to London, defeating the royal forces under Sir Humphrey Stafford on the way, at Sevenoaks. The victorious rebels encamped on Blackheath, whence Jack Cade sent to the Royal Council his "Complaint," embodying a statement of grievances, chief of which were maladministration in the government, the king's favoritism to his evil counselors, the interference of the nobles in the county elections, the extortions of the tax-collectors, and the hardships imposed on the peasants by the Statute of Laborers.

His Demands.

His Occupation of London.

Appreciating the fact that Jack Cade's demands were reasonable, the Royal Council removed the king to Kenilworth Castle, whereupon Jack Cade entered London. He held the city for three days, and caused Lord Say and Seal, the treasurer, and that official's son-in-law, Cromer, the Sheriff of Kent, to be beheaded at Cheapside for their extortions. Cade then exclaimed: "Now I am master of London!"

Execution of Lord Say and Seal.

Cade's Demands Granted.

Cade's followers now plundered private property, in disobedience of his orders. The citizens then rose against Cade, and when he retired at night to Southwark they held London Bridge, with the aid of some soldiers from the Tower, thus preventing his return. After a council of six hours the Royal Council granted Jack Cade's demands, and most of the insurgents dispersed and returned to their homes upon being promised a pardon for their rebellion. Jack Cade, with a price on his head, fled almost alone into Sussex, but was pursued and killed by a Kentish gentleman named Iden; and many of his followers were executed.

His Flight and Death.

Rival Parties of the Houses of York and Lancaster.

The loss of the English possessions in France compelled the English nobles to confine their ambitious schemes at home, and these nobles were divided into two parties which contended for supremacy in the nation. The party which adhered to the reigning family, the House of Lancaster, was headed by Edmund Beaufort, Duke of Somerset, the representative of the illegitimate branch of the House of Lancaster. The other party, which adhered to the rival House of York, was under the leadership of Richard Plantagenet, Duke of York, who aspired to the English throne, which he claimed as a descendant of Edward III. both on his father's and his mother's side. By his father he was descended from the youngest son of Edward III. From his mother, who was the last of the Mortimers, he inherited the claim of that family from Lionel, second son of Edward III.

The Dukes of Somerset and York.

Unpopularity of the Duke of Somerset.

Although it was believed that the Duke of Somerset aspired to the English throne, his influence was all powerful at court; but he was unpopular with the English people, because he was considered responsible for the loss of Normandy by the English. The Duke of York, who had commanded with credit both in France and in Ireland, was very popular with the English people. He was a brave, able and generous

Popularity of the Duke of York.

man, and was closely related by marriage to the Earls of Salisbury and Warwick, the most powerful noblemen in England.

Claims of Richard, Duke of York, to the Crown.

If Henry VI. had been an able man like his father his subjects might have forgotten by this time that his grandfather was a usurper; but his incapacity reminded them of the imperfection of his royal title and of the superior claim of the Mortimers, who, though extinct in the male line, had their rights to the English crown transferred by marriage to the House of York.

Birth of a Prince of Wales.

The birth of a Prince of Wales, instead of strengthening the cause of the imbecile King Henry VI., removed all hope of the peaceable succession of the Duke of York to the English throne, and thus hastened the approaching civil war. In 1454 the king sunk into a condition of total bodily and mental weakness, so that he was unfit to govern. Queen Margaret and her council were obliged to yield to the popular will, and Parliament appointed the Duke of York to the office of Protector of the kingdom. The first use that the Duke of York made of his power was to send the Duke of Somerset to the Tower; but Henry VI. soon recovered his reason, whereupon the Duke of York was removed from the Protectorship, and the Duke of Somerset released from prison and restored to power in the government.

The Duke of York's Temporary Protectorship.

The Duke of Somerset's Temporary Imprisonment.

Civil War.

The quarrel between the Dukes of Somerset and York soon threw all England into a violent ferment. Both assembled their partisans and vassals, and in the first battle of St. Albans, May 3, 1455, the Duke of Somerset was defeated and killed. King Henry VI., whom the Duke of Somerset had dragged into the battle much against his will, was wounded, and took refuge in the house of a tanner, where the victorious Duke of York found him. The Duke of York fell upon his knees before the king, declared himself his loyal subject, and ready to obey his commands; to which the king replied: "If so, stop the pursuit and slaughter."

First Battle of St. Albans.

Henry VI. Wounded and a Captive.

Beginning of the Wars of the Roses.

Thus began the *Wars of the Roses*—the badge of the House of Lancaster being a red rose, and the badge of the House of York a white rose. This civil war for thirty years deluged England with the blood of her own people, destroyed eighty princes of the blood royal, and almost annihilated the ancient nobility of England, founded by William the Conqueror.

The Duke of York Claims the Crown.

The victorious Duke of York conducted Henry VI. to London and treated him with great respect; but, notwithstanding his professions of loyalty to the king, he continued the civil war against the queen and her party, under the pretense of freeing the king from evil counselors. At last the Duke of York threw off the mask in the House of Lords by boldly declaring Henry VI. a usurper and claiming the English crown as his own by right of inheritance; whereupon many of his supporters,

Desertions of His Partisans.

who had joined him because they had supposed that he was only contending for the public welfare, deserted his standard.

Neville, Earl of Warwick, the King-maker.

Seeing himself thus abandoned, the Duke of York retired into Ireland; but he left a very able and zealous friend in England—his wife's brother, Neville, Earl of Warwick; afterwards called the *King-maker*, because he was able to raise up and pull down kings at will. The Earl of Warwick was the richest nobleman in England, and was the last of the great barons who held their broad lands on the feudal tenure of military service. This powerful nobleman maintained thirty thousand persons on his various estates and manors—a very great number when the whole kingdom had a population of less than two and a-half millions. He was idolized by the soldiers and the people as the greatest representative of the national aristocracy of England.

His Great Liberality.

Stow, a writer of that day, describes the great Earl of Warwick coming to London with a retinue of six hundred men, all in red jackets, embroidered on the sleeves with the "bare and ragged staff," the badge of the Warwick family. He lodged in his house on Warwick Lane, and six fat oxen were frequently consumed in one breakfast. All his own people were fed at his cost, and even all who were acquainted with his household were permitted to carry away as much boiled or roasted meat as they could take on their daggers; so that it is no wonder that he was extremely popular.

Battles of Bloreheath and Northampton.

The Yorkists were victorious at Bloreheath, in Staffordshire, in 1459; and the Earl of Warwick defeated the Lancastrians at Northampton, July 10, 1460, compelling them to flee in all directions. Queen Margaret and her son fled to Scotland. King Henry VI. was found sitting alone in his tent, by the Earl of Warwick, who carried him a prisoner to London.

Henry VI. a Prisoner.

Parliament's Decision as to the Crown.

When Parliament convened in the fall of 1460 the Duke of York returned from Ireland and presented his claim to the English crown. There was no doubt that he was the direct heir of Edward III., but Parliament was unwilling to dethrone the reigning king. Parliament therefore decided that Henry VI. should remain King of England during his life, but that on his death the Duke of York and his heirs should succeed to the throne.

Margaret's Army.

Battle of Wakefield and Death of the Duke of York and His Son.

But Queen Margaret was not disposed to see her son thus set aside. By great exertions she raised an army of twenty thousand men, whom she induced to enter her service by promising them the plunder of the fertile lands of England. With this army Margaret advanced toward London, and encountered the Duke of York at the head of only five thousand men at Wakefield, in Yorkshire, where he was defeated and slain, December 30, 1460. The spot where he fell is still fenced off in a corner of a field near Sandal. His death was sincerely lamented by

his partisans. The cruel Margaret caused his head to be cut off and fixed on the gate of York with a paper crown, in derision of his claim. His son Edmund, Earl of Rutland, a handsome boy of twelve years, was murdered in cold blood by Lord Clifford, on Wakefield hedge, where a small chapel, afterward erected, still commemorates the bloody deed. The cruel queen also caused the most noble and valiant of her prisoners to be beheaded without trial.

Children of the Duke of York.

The Duke of York left three sons and three daughters. The sons were Edward, Duke of York, afterward King Edward IV.; Richard, Duke of Gloucester, afterward King Richard III.; and George, Duke of Clarence. His eldest daughter became the wife of the renowned Duke Charles the Bold of Burgundy.

Battle of Mortimer's Cross.

Edward Plantagenet, the young Duke of York, took up the cause and claim of his lamented father, defeated the Lancastrians in the battle of Mortimer's Cross, in Herefordshire, early in 1461, and followed up his victory by the bloody execution of the Lancastrian nobles who fell into his hands. After her victory in the battle of Wakefield, Queen Margaret resumed her advance toward London; her followers fully availing themselves of the liberty to plunder by pillaging and burning every church and dwelling, marking their way by fire and devastation. The Earl of Warwick led an army against her, taking the poor passive king with him.

Ravages of Margaret's Army.

Second Battle of St. Albans.

In the second battle of St. Albans, February 17, 1461, Margaret won a victory over the Earl of Warwick, who fled, leaving behind him the king, who was rejoiced at being restored to his wife and son. But the queen's triumph was of short duration. The city of London was firm in the interests of the Yorkists, while the citizens also feared to admit Margaret's tumultuous army and refused to open their gates. The queen was therefore again obliged to retreat northward.

Margaret Shut Out of London.

The Young Duke of York in London and Proclaimed King.

The young Duke of York, with the remains of the army of the Earl of Warwick, entered London amid the acclamations of the populace, March 3, 1461. The Earl of Warwick then assembled the people, presented the young duke to them, and asked whether they would have him or Henry VI. for their king. The multitude shouted: "A York! a York! Long live King Edward!" The young Duke of York was that day proclaimed King of England with the title of EDWARD IV. The next day he went in solemn procession to Westminster Hall, took his seat on the throne, and received the homage of a large assemblage of nobles, bishops and magistrates, March 4, 1461. Thus ended the reign of the poor, idiotic Henry VI., the last of the three English kings belonging to the House of Lancaster; and thus began the royal House of York, which also furnished three kings to England, whose united reigns aggregated twenty-four years (A. D. 1461–1485).

Edward IV., First of the House of York, A. D. 1461–1483.

THE DEATH OF THE EARL OF WARWICK

From the Painting by J. A. Houston

His Bad Character.

Edward IV. was only in his nineteenth year when he found himself so unexpectedly seated on the throne of England. He was brave, active and enterprising, with a capacity far beyond his years. Comines, the contemporary French historian, says that "he was tall of person, fair of face, of a most princely presence, and altogether the goodliest man that ever mine eyes beheld." But these brilliant qualities were blackened by the darkest vices. In peace Edward IV. reveled in all kinds of self-indulgence, and in war he was sanguinary beyond all who had preceded him. He was willing to wade through seas of blood to secure possession of his throne.

Battle of Towton.

Immediately after his accession the new king mustered an army of sixty thousand men, which he led northward in pursuit of the Lancastrian army of sixty thousand men under the deposed Henry VI. and Margaret. Edward IV. overtook the fleeing Lancastrians at Towton, about eight miles from York, in the midst of a severe snow storm, about four o'clock in the afternoon of Palm Sunday, 1461. The Yorkists had their backs toward the storm, while the Lancastrians faced it and were thus greatly incommoded by it. The sanguinary battle raged all that night and part of the next day, until finally the Lancastrian army fled in a panic from the bloody field, leaving thirty-three thousand men dead in the snow. Henry VI. and his wife and son awaited the result at York, and when they were informed of the defeat of their army they fled with the utmost haste to Scotland.

Flight of Henry VI. and Margaret to Scotland.

Sweeping Confiscations of Lancastrian Estates.

It had been the practice from the beginning of the war for either party, when victorious, to execute the nobles of the other party and to confiscate their estates. After the battle of Towton there was a sweeping confiscation of Lancastrian estates, many of which were conferred on the Earl of Warwick, the main pillar of the House of York. Edward IV. also satiated his revengeful temper by many bloody executions, and every Lancastrian who fell into his hands was condemned as a traitor. He strengthened his own party by conferring titles and honors on all his friends. It was very necessary to create new peers, as the numbers of the nobility had been vastly reduced by the recent exterminating battles and by the sanguinary executions which followed them. Thus some of the noblest heads in England fell upon the scaffold, and their confiscated wealth went to build up the despotic power on which Edward IV. had set his heart, as it enabled him to support the expense of his government without the necessity of having recourse to Parliament.

Wholesale Executions of the Lancastrian Nobility.

Margaret's New Army.

Margaret's energy was only increased by these reverses of fortune. She made two voyages to France, in hopes of receiving assistance from there. Finally, by her untiring exertions, she raised an army, with which she invaded England by way of Scotland. After some slight

Battles of Hedgley Moor and Hexham.

successes, she was defeated by King Edward IV. at Hedgley Moor, April 25, 1464, and three weeks later at Hexham.

Margaret and Her Son and the Robbers.

This last defeat was so decisive that Henry VI. escaped capture only by the swiftness of his horse. Margaret and her eleven-year-old son sought a hiding place in the woods, but there they fell among robbers, who took all their valuables from them. Fortunately, the robbers then quarreled about the division of the plunder, thus giving Margaret and her little boy an opportunity to escape. As she and her son were wandering about in the woods they met another robber. Margaret boldly approached him with her boy, saying: "Behold, my friend, the son of your king. I commit him to your protection." This appeal aroused the pity of the robber, who accordingly led the fallen queen and her little son to a hiding place, where they remained until the pursuit was over. The robber then led them to the sea-coast, whence they escaped to France.

Captivity of Henry VI. in London.

The unfortunate Henry VI. wandered from one hiding place to another for the space of a year, suffering many hardships. While sitting at dinner at Waddington Hall, in July, 1465, he was betrayed by a monk to Sir James Harrington, who conveyed him to London and turned him over to his great enemy, the Earl of Warwick. The Earl of Warwick treated the fallen king with the utmost indignity; tying his feet under his horse's belly, as if he had been a criminal, and thus compelling him to ride round the pillory three times, while the populace were forbidden to show him any respect or compassion. The poor ex-king was then imprisoned in the Tower.

His Indignities from the Earl of Warwick.

Distress of the Lancastrian Nobles.

The partisans of Henry VI. were now reduced to such distress that many of the most distinguished Lancastrian nobles were actually begging their bread in foreign lands, while the triumphant Yorkists were reveling in their estates. Says Comines: "I have seen the Duke of Exeter, barefooted and barelegged, begging from door to door; but becoming known, the Duke of Burgundy bestowed on him a pension."

Extermination of the Lancastrian Nobility.

With savage ferocity, Edward IV. did all in his power to exterminate the Lancastrian nobles, and those remaining in England could save themselves only by hiding. The son of that Lord Clifford who murdered young Edmund, Earl of Rutland, the brother of Edward IV., on the bloody field of Wakefield, was brought up as a shepherd. Another Lancastrian was hidden for five years in a cave on the banks of the river Derwent. The Countess of Oxford supported herself and her family for some time by working with her needle, and when that failed she was obliged to beg about the streets of London.

The Earl of Warwick very much desired that Edward IV. should marry into some powerful foreign family. The great earl was accordingly sent abroad to negotiate a match, and was successful in pro-

curing for the king the hand of Bona, sister to the wife of King Louis XI. of France. In the meantime, Edward IV., while one day hunting in Witchwood Forest, happened to stop at the manor of Grafton, where he met Lady Elizabeth Gray, daughter of Sir Richard Woodville and widow of Sir John Gray, a Lancastrian knight, who was slain at St. Albans. This lady became a suitor to the king for some lands which had been confiscated for the part that her husband had taken in the civil war.

Edward IV. and Lady Elizabeth Gray.

Edward IV. was so much charmed by the grace and beauty of Lady Elizabeth Gray that he in turr became a suitor to her. She received his addresses favorably, and he presently married her. The new queen claimed all the gifts and honors of the court for her kinsmen, and improved every opportunity to thwart and injure the Earl of Warwick. The king, who was deeply in love with his wife, filled the court with her kindred, showering riches and honors upon them. Her father, Sir Richard Woodville—whom her mother, the Duchess of Bedford, had married after the death of her first husband, the Duke of Bedford—was raised to the rank of nobility; as were also the queen's three brothers and her five sisters, all of whom married into the greatest families. Her eldest son, by her first husband, Sir John Gray, was married to the king's niece, the daughter of the Duke of Exeter. Edward IV. abandoned himself to pleasure, and the court was one continued scene of revelry; but under this external gayety and amusement was hidden a smothered fire of hatred and envy, as the sudden advancement of the new queen's family made them objects of jealousy to all the old nobility.

Their Marriage.

The New Queen's Kindred Enriched and Honored by Edward IV.

The king's marriage with an English subject led to his estrangement from the Earl of Warwick, whose indignation was aroused by the removal of his friends from office in rapid succession; and from being the best friend of Edward IV. the Earl of Warwick soon became his most powerful enemy, but concealed his resentment until the most favorable opportunity arrived for taking revenge, which opportunity soon presented itself.

Quarrel of Edward IV. and the Earl of Warwick.

The king's brothers—George, Duke of Clarence, and Richard, Duke of Gloucester—were likewise affronted at beholding themselves supplanted by the new royal favorites. The Duke of Clarence had married the daughter of the Earl of Warwick, and in 1469 the two conspired against the king. To further their designs, they proceeded to France, where they were joyfully welcomed by all the Lancastrians in that country. The exiled Queen Margaret hastened to secure the friendship of the Earl of Warwick by marrying her son to his daughter Anne. Duke Charles the Bold of Burgundy, whose wife was the English king's eldest sister, warned Edward IV. of the coming storm;

The King's Brothers and the Earl of Warwick Desert to the Lancastrians.

but the king, heedless of his brother-in-law's admonition, continued to pass his time in idle diversions.

The Earl of Warwick Master of England.

The Earl of Warwick returned to England, landing with a few followers on the Kentish coast, September 13, 1470. No preparations had been made to oppose him, and he was at once joined by many nobles and by a great army, so that he was master of England in eleven days.

Flight of Edward IV. from England.

Edward IV. and his brother, Richard, Duke of Gloucester, fled on horseback and escaped from the kingdom by taking passage on a trading vessel to Friesland, embarking so hastily that they had no money to pay their passage, so that the fugitive king was obliged to reward the captain of the vessel by giving him his cloak.

Henry VI. Restored by the King-maker.

Edward's queen took refuge in a sanctuary at Westminster, where her son, afterward King Edward V., was born. The Earl of Warwick, the King-maker, dragged the poor, forgotten Henry VI. from the Tower and replaced him on the English throne. But the Yorkists, who had been stunned by so sudden a blow, soon recovered from their momentary consternation. Edward IV., with the aid of his brother-in-law, Duke Charles the Bold of Burgundy, soon mustered a small fleet and army, with which he returned to England, effecting a landing in Yorkshire. He soon had possession of the two great cities of York and London, and returned the poor, helpless Henry VI. to his prison in the Tower, after which he rallied all his forces to oppose the Earl of Warwick, who was marching against him, with a large and well-equipped army.

Edward IV. Returns and Recovers His Throne.

Battle of Barnet and Death of the Earl of Warwick.

The hostile armies met at Barnet, near London, April 13, 1471. During the night the fickle Duke of Clarence deserted with twelve thousand men from the army of his father-in-law, the Earl of Warwick, and joined his brother, King Edward IV. The battle of Barnet was fought the next day, when the great Earl of Warwick, the King-maker, was defeated and slain while fighting bravely for the Lancastrians, many of the nobles perishing with him on that fatal field, April 14, 1471.

Margaret's Despair.

Queen Margaret and her son had been detained by contrary winds, and did not land in England until the evening of the day on which the battle of Barnet was fought. Finding all hopes blasted by the fatal result of that day, Margaret's undaunted spirit forsook her for the first time, and she sank fainting to the ground. When she revived she fled with her son to a sanctuary, with the intention of returning to France; but some of the Lancastrians gathered around her and persuaded her to stay and make one more effort to recover the kingdom for her son. In the bloody battle of Tewkesbury, in Gloucestershire, May 4, 1471, the Lancastrians were again defeated, and Margaret and her son were taken prisoners.

Battle of Tewkesbury and Captivity of Margaret and Her Son.

Margaret's son, young Prince Edward, was brought into the presence of King Edward IV., and was asked how he dared to come into his kingdom in arms. The prince boldly replied: "I came to recover my father's kingdom." Thereupon Edward IV. struck him a brutal blow on the face, which was a signal for further violence; and the young prince was dragged out of the room by the king's brothers, the Dukes of Clarence and Gloucester, who murdered him with their daggers. Edward IV. returned in triumph to London, and the next day the poor, helpless Henry VI. was found dead in his bed in the Tower, supposed to have been murdered by the Duke of Gloucester.

Murder of Margaret's Son by the Brothers of Edward IV.

Suspicious Death of Henry VI.

The high-spirited Margaret, who had been the very soul of the Lancastrian cause, was detained a state prisoner for five years in the Tower, and was then ransomed by her kinsman, King Louis XI. of France, when she returned to that country, dying four years later in her native county of Anjou, broken-hearted on account of the disasters which had befallen her family.

Margaret's Captivity, Ransom and Death.

The triumph of Edward IV. was now complete, and the Lancastrian cause was irretrievably ruined. The principal Lancastrian nobles died on the scaffold as traitors. The triumphant Edward IV. now led a life of luxury and indulgence, and the remainder of his reign was inglorious. Having established his power at home, he prepared to punish Louis XI. of France for the aid which that king had given Margaret in her last effort to recover the English kingdom for her son. Parliament granted Edward IV. a large sum for this purpose, and he obtained more money from the wealthy citizens of London, who feared to refuse his request. These loans were called *benevolences*.

Triumph of Edward IV.

Prepares for War with Louis XI of France.

Benevolences.

In 1475 Edward IV. revived the old, worn-out claim of the English kings to the crown of France, and invaded that country by way of Calais with an army of thirty thousand men. His brother-in-law, Duke Charles the Bold of Burgundy, failed to join him; and Edward IV., who had grown indolent and who preferred pleasure to war, suffered himself to be outwitted by the crafty Louis XI., who bribed the English king to consent to the disgraceful Treaty of Pequigny, by which the wily French king agreed to pay an annual pension to Edward IV. and betrothed the Dauphin Charles to the English king's eldest daughter, Elizabeth.

Invasion of France by Edward IV.

Disgraceful Treaty of Pequigny.

The failure of Edward IV. to accomplish anything in France was a sore disappointment to the English people, who had expected a renewal of the glories of Creçy, Poitiers and Agincourt. The venal conduct of the English king and nobles excited the contempt even of the French. All the while that Louis XI. was treating Edward IV. with the most profound respect to his face, he ridiculed him and his courtiers behind his back for being so mercenary and greedy.

English Disappointment.

Two-faced Conduct of Louis XI.

The Duke of Clarence and His Brothers as Enemies.

Although the Duke of Clarence had rendered such great service to his brother, King Edward IV., in the battle of Barnet, the king had never forgiven him for his aid to the Earl of Warwick just before that battle; and the Duke of Clarence now had the misfortune to gain the enmity of the queen and of his youngest brother, Richard, Duke of Gloucester.

The Dukes of Gloucester and Clarence and Anne Neville.

The Duke of Gloucester very much desired to marry Anne Neville, the widow of the murdered Prince Edward of Lancaster and the daughter of the great Earl of Warwick, the King-maker. The Duke of Clarence had married Anne's eldest sister, and wished Anne to remain a widow, so that he might secure to himself her inheritance, and thus come into possession of the whole of the Warwick estates. As the Duke of Gloucester was not very attractive, the Duke of Clarence very easily persuaded Anne Neville to reject the addresses of the murderer of her husband. But the Duke of Gloucester did not have any scruples about resorting to violence for the accomplishment of that which he was unable to effect by persuasion, and Anne was obliged to resort to many artifices to conceal herself. Finally he discovered her, disguised as a cook, in London, and immediately married her.

Marriage of the Duke of Gloucester with Anne Neville.

Edward IV. and Thomas Burdet's Buck.

The Duke of Gloucester sought in every way to excite the king's jealousy of the Duke of Clarence, and at length a trifle afforded an opportunity of gratifying his malice. One day, as Edward IV. was hunting in the park of Thomas Burdet, who was a friend of the Duke of Clarence, it happened that the king killed a white buck, a great favorite of the owner. Burdet, vexed at his loss, fell into a violent passion, during which he expressed the wish that the horns of the buck might cause the death of the person who had advised the king to kill the animal. As no one had advised the king to kill the buck, it was agreed that these words could apply to none but the king himself; and Burdet was accordingly tried, condemned and executed for wishing the king's death.

Burdet's Condemnation and Execution.

Condemnation and Death of the Duke of Clarence.

The Duke of Clarence was very free in expressing his opinion of the injustice of this act. The Duke of Gloucester reported these expressions to Edward IV., whereupon the Duke of Clarence was arrested; and Parliament, which then dared not oppose the king's wishes, condemned the arrested brother to death. As a royal and brotherly favor, Edward IV. permitted the Duke of Clarence to choose the manner of his death. The condemned duke desired to be drowned in a butt of Malmsey wine, and his wish was gratified. He had a son, who inherited his grandfather's title of Earl of Warwick, and a daughter, afterwards Countess of Salisbury; both of whom died violent deaths.

Tyranny of Edward IV.

Edward IV., so sagacious and unscrupulous in matters of state, became a tyrant and established a despotism. He introduced the odious

spy system into England, and made it so thorough that the lightest court gossip, as well as the most serious state intrigue, reached the king's ear. He also instituted the system of *benevolences*, which were gifts of money which he invited his wealthy subjects to make to him, and which none dared to refuse—an ingenious method of observing the letter, while violating the spirit, of the law against arbitrary taxation.

Spy System and Benevolences.

The greatest event of the reign of Edward IV. was the introduction of the new art of printing into England by William Caxton, a worthy London merchant, who had retired from trade and become a copyist in the service of the king's sister, the wife of Duke Charles the Bold of Burgundy. When Caxton heard of the invention of this art in Germany, which was rapidly multiplying the number of books, he learned to be a printer in his sixtieth year; and three years later, A. D. 1476, he carried his press and types from Burgundy to England. The old man toiled in London until his eightieth year; and his industry and zeal is attested by the sixty-five books which he printed, of many of which he was the author and translator as well as the printer.

William Caxton and the Art of Printing in England.

In the Treaty of Arras, December 23, 1482, Louis XI. of France offered a mortal insult to Edward IV. by setting aside the marriage engagement of his son, the Dauphin Charles, to the English king's daughter Elizabeth, and betrothing the Dauphin to Anne, the daughter of the Archduke Maximilian of Austria, afterwards the Emperor Maximilian I. Edward IV. prepared to avenge the French king's insult by a fresh invasion of France; but he died in the midst of his warlike preparations, April 9, 1483, at the age of forty years, and after a reign of twenty-two years, his life being very much shortened by his excesses.

Insult of Louis XI. to Edward IV.

Death of Edward IV.

We now come to the shortest and most pathetic reign in English history. Edward IV. left two sons and five daughters. The sons were Edward, Prince of Wales, thirteen years of age, and Richard, Duke of York, ten years old. The eldest of these was proclaimed King of England with the title of Edward V. The public in general acknowledged his title; but his uncle, Richard, Duke of Gloucester, had long intended to put the innocent boy king out of the way, for the purpose of usurping the English crown for himself.

Edward V., A. D. 1483.

Designs of the Duke of Gloucester.

The Duke of Gloucester profited by the jealousy which the nobles felt for the widow of Edward IV. and her relatives. The young king had been intrusted to the care of his maternal uncles, Lords Rivers and Gray. Richard's first step was to remove these noblemen from about the person of Edward V.; and in this he was willingly assisted by Lord Hastings, a loyal and honest man, but a bitter enemy of the queen-mother and her relatives.

His Plottings against Lords Rivers and Gray.

His Treacherous Imprisonment of Lords Rivers and Gray in Pontefract Castle.

Richard, Duke of Gloucester, and Lord Hastings set out to meet the boy king, who was on his way from Ludlow Castle to London to be crowned, being accompanied by his maternal uncles. The two parties met at Stony Stratford, where Lords Rivers and Gray passed the evening with the Duke of Gloucester in mirth and pleasantry, wholly unsuspicious of their impending fate. The next morning these two noblemen were seized and sent to Pontefract Castle, and all the rest of the youthful king's attendants were dismissed and forbidden to come near the court on penalty of death.

Alarm of Edward V.

Falsely Calmed by the Duke of Gloucester.

Little King Edward V. was struck with grief and terror upon finding himself alone and in the power of his wicked uncle Richard, whom he had early been taught to dread; but the Duke of Gloucester fell on his knees, and assured his royal nephew, with strong professions of loyalty and affection, that all that he had done was for his preservation. After being soothed into composure, the boy king proceeded with his uncle Richard to London, where the news of these violent acts had arrived before them and caused great alarm. The king's mother instantly fled into the sanctuary at Westminster, taking with her her younger son, Richard, Duke of York, and her five daughters. Rotherham, Archbishop of York, a faithful servant of the crown, hastened to comfort the alarmed and distressed queen-mother.

Flight of the King's Mother to Westminster.

The Duke of Gloucester Made Protector.

The Duke of Gloucester conducted his royal nephew into London, May 4, 1483, riding bareheaded before him, and frequently calling out to the people: "Behold your king!" A great council was held two days afterward, which appointed the artful Duke of Gloucester to the office of Protector of the kingdom. To keep up the deception, a day was appointed for the little king's coronation, and the preparations were immediately commenced for that event.

Lords Rivers and Gray Beheaded.

In the meantime, those to whom the Duke of Gloucester had disclosed his design to seize the English crown were actively employed. Sir Thomas Ratcliffe, one of the duke's chief confidants, entered Pontefract Castle with five thousand men, May 13, 1483, and beheaded the imprisoned Lords Rivers and Gray without any trial. The death of Lord Rivers was deeply lamented, as he was the most accomplished English nobleman of his time.

Plot against Lord Hastings.

Catesby, another creature of the Duke of Gloucester, had sought to win the support of Lord Hastings to the duke's schemes; but Hastings was firm in his devotion to the boy king, whereupon it was resolved to put him out of the way. On the very day that Lords Rivers and Gray were murdered in Pontefract Castle, the Duke of Gloucester summoned the council to meet in the Tower. The duke seemed to be remarkably gay and good-natured, but left the council-chamber as if called out upon business.

THE PRINCES IN THE TOWER

From the Painting by Paul Delaroche

Jane Shore Accused by Richard III. of Bewitching His Arm.

He soon returned with an angry countenance and demanded the punishment of those who plotted against his life. Lord Hastings, who was president of the council, replied that they should be treated as traitors. Said the Duke of Gloucester: "These traitors are the sorceresses, my brother's wife and another of his late friends. See to what they have reduced me by their witchcraft." Thereupon the duke laid bare his withered arm. The councilors looked at one another with amazement, well knowing that Richard's arm had been withered from his birth. Lord Hastings ventured to defend the late king's friend, Jane Shore, against the charge of witchcraft. Thereupon the duke exclaimed: "And do you reply to me with your *ifs* and your *ands*? You are yourself the chief traitor; and I swear by St. Paul I will not dine before your head be brought to me!" Thereupon Richard struck his hand upon the table as a signal; and armed men rushed into the chamber, seized Hastings and instantly beheaded him in the presence of the council.

Lord Hastings Defends Her and Is Beheaded.

The Duke of Gloucester Gets Possession of the Boy King's Little Brother.

His Mother's Grief on Parting with Him.

The next object of the Duke of Gloucester was to get the little king's brother, the youthful Duke of York, into his power; declaring that it would be highly improper to permit the boy to remain in the sanctuary, because thieves and murderers found refuge therein. The Duke of Gloucester according sent the Archbishop of Canterbury, who had no suspicion of Richard's evil designs, to persuade the queen-mother to surrender her little son. She had begun to suspect the ambitious designs of the Duke of Gloucester, although she had not heard of the murder of Lords Rivers and Gray. She knew that her little boy would be taken from her by force if she refused to consent to let him go. She clasped him to her breast and took leave of him with a flood of tears. Little King Edward V. was delighted to see his brother, and hoped long to enjoy his company.

The Duke of Buckingham Addresses the People in Favor of the Duke of Gloucester as King.

After getting both his little nephews in his power, the Duke of Gloucester commenced acting more openly. He employed a popular preacher to harangue the people in his favor, but he met with little success. The Duke of Buckingham next addressed them; describing the miseries of the reign of Edward IV., dwelling upon the unfitness of the boy king to govern, and enlarging upon the virtues of the Duke of Gloucester. The Duke of Buckingham expressed his apprehension that the Protector could not be induced to accept the English crown, but he hoped that the people would do all in their power to persuade him to do so. He concluded by desiring every man to speak his real sentiments and to declare without fear whether they would have little Edward V., or his virtuous uncle, for their king.

After a short silence some of the servants of the Duke of Gloucester slipped in among the multitude and exclaimed: "Long live King Rich-

The Duke of Gloucester's Pretended Surprise and Reluctance.

ard!" A few of the mob joined in the cry, and the duke induced the Lord Mayor and the Aldermen of London to accompany him to the Protector's palace and to offer him the English crown. The Duke of Gloucester pretended to be very much surprised at seeing such a concourse of people. When he was informed that their design was to offer him the royal crown he declined accepting it, saying that his love of his brother's children was greater than his love of a crown; but he finally allowed himself to be persuaded by the Duke of Buckingham and announced his acceptance.

Richard III., A. D., 1483–1485.

His Coronation at Westminster.

His Claim.

The Duke of Gloucester was at once proclaimed King of England with the title of Richard III., June 22, 1483; and the preparations which had been made for the coronation of Edward V. served for that of his uncle, who was crowned at Westminster, July 6, 1483, and who repeated the ceremony at York in order to please the people in the North of England. Richard III. claimed that the English crown was rightfully his, on the ground that his nephews were illegitimate on account of a marriage of Edward IV. contracted before his union with Lady Elizabeth Gray. In order to strengthen his claim he did not hesitate to insult his own mother, who was still living, by declaring that he was the only one of all her sons who was legitimate. Edward V. had reigned about two months and a-half (April 9–June 22, 1483).

Secret Murder of Edward V. and His Little Brother.

The fate of Edward V. and his little brother, the Duke of York, was unknown for a long time with certainty; but they were never seen again. Some years afterward several persons confessed themselves to have murdered them, and said that their bodies were buried at the foot of a staircase in the Tower. The story was not credited at the time, it being believed to have been fabricated for political effect; but it was confirmed in an extraordinary manner two centuries later, when a staircase in the Tower was altered. Then a chest was found buried under that staircase, and in that chest were the bones of two children corresponding in size to the ages of Edward V. and his brother.

Plots of the Duke of Buckingham in Favor of Henry Tudor.

No sooner had Richard III. obtained the crown of England than he sought to secure the future support of those who had aided him, by conferring liberal rewards upon them. The Duke of Buckingham, who had the largest claim, received the largest share of the royal favors. But even this ample compensation failed to satisfy the avarice or ambition of this nobleman; and he was soon engaged in a conspiracy to depose Richard III. and to place on the throne Henry Tudor, Earl of Richmond, a grandson of the Welshman Owen Tudor and his wife Catharine, the widow of Henry V. Henry Tudor was thus, through his paternal grandfather, a descendant of Llewellyn and the ancient Princes of Wales; and through his paternal grandmother he was the only remaining heir of the House of Lancaster. He was then an exile

in France under the protection of the Duke of Brittany, who had brought him up and secured him against every attempt of Edward IV. to get him into his power.

Henry Tudor and Princess Elizabeth.

In order to supply the defects of Henry Tudor's title to the crown, it was agreed that he should marry the Princess Elizabeth, the eldest daughter of Edward IV., and therefore the heiress of the House of York. The vigilance of Richard III. never slept, and when he perceived the impending storm he raised an army and summoned the Duke of Buckingham to attend him. This nobleman answered the summons by taking the field against the king, at the head of a military force which he had raised in Wales and with which he advanced into England.

Opposing Forces of Richard III. and the Duke of Buckingham.

Buckingham's Flood.

When the Duke of Buckingham had arrived near the river Severn an extraordinary flood, long known as *Buckingham's Flood*, prevented his crossing. His Welsh troops, influenced by superstition and suffering from hunger, deserted his standard and returned to their homes. Their deserted officers fled from the kingdom or took refuge in sanctuaries. The Duke of Buckingham sought refuge in the house of a dependent of his own named Bannister, on whose fidelity he thought he could rely; but this man was unable to resist the temptation of the large reward offered for his master's apprehension, and betrayed him to the Sheriff of Shropshire, who found the duke in the disguise of a peasant hidden in an orchard behind Bannister's house, and took him to London, where he was executed.

Desertion of the Duke of Buckingham's Followers.

His Flight, Capture and Execution.

Death of the Son and Wife of Richard III.

Richard III., whose heart appeared callous to the sufferings of others, was vulnerable in one point. His only child, Edward, died April 9, 1484; and it is said that the king's grief was so intense that he almost "run mad." The queen's grief was just as violent, and her death several months later is usually ascribed to it, though some assert that she was poisoned by her husband. Richard III. now sought to win the favor of the widowed queen of Edward IV.; and in this he was so successful that he induced her to consent to his own marriage with her daughter, the Princess Elizabeth, although he was the paternal uncle of the princess and had murdered her two brothers and her two maternal uncles.

His Proposed Marriage with Princess Elizabeth.

Henry Tudor, Earl of Richmond, in Wales and France.

Notwithstanding all his spies, Richard III. did not appear to have been aware that Henry Tudor, Earl of Richmond, who was supposed to be all the while in France, had actually passed much of his time in Wales, gaining adherents among his own countrymen. Once the young earl came so near being discovered by the king's spies that he only escaped by jumping out of a back window and getting through an opening, which is still called the *King's Hole*. On his return to France, Henry Tudor heard the report of the intended marriage of Richard III.

He Takes the Field against Richard III.

with the Princess Elizabeth of York. He therefore hastily raised an army of three thousand men, consisting of English exiles and a few French troops, and with this small force he landed at Milford Haven, in Wales, August 7, 1485.

Alarm of Richard III.

When Richard III. heard how small an army Henry Tudor had with him, and what a ragged, beggarly crowd they were, he despised so weak an enemy. But when the king discovered that the young earl's force was fast increasing in numbers, and that some Welsh troops who had been sent against Henry Tudor had actually joined him, he began to perceive the danger by which he was threatened. Richard III. might still have quelled the rising against him had he known in whom to confide.

Ratcliffe, Catesby and Lovel.

The chief agents in the king's wicked schemes were Ratcliffe, Catesby and Lovel, which gave rise to the following verses, which an old chronicler says passed for excellent wit in those times:

> "The Cat, the Rat, and Lovel the Dog,
> Rule all England under the Hog."

The term *Hog* referred to Richard III., whose badge was the white boar.

Richard III. and Lord Stanley.

Richard III. knew that these three men were not the friends on whom he could rely in the time of his own need. With good reason, he distrusted all around him; as Lord Stanley, to whom he had assigned the chief command of his army, was secretly in league with the Earl of Richmond, whose mother he had married.

Battle of Bosworth.

Richard soon aroused himself to action, quickly raised an army and marched with great pomp against the Earl of Richmond, wearing a crown on his helmet. The two armies met on the field of Bosworth, in Leicestershire, August 22, 1485, where they were that day drawn up in line of battle, Lord Stanley drawing up the royal troops under his command a short distance away from the rest of the king's army. The Earl of Richmond, who was no soldier, sent a request to Lord Stanley to aid him in forming his troops in line; but Stanley replied to the earl that he must form them himself, and that he would come to him at a convenient moment.

Lord Stanley's Treachery to Richard III.

Lord Stanley's Desertion to Henry Tudor during the Battle.

Richard III. was very angry when he saw how Lord Stanley had drawn up his troops; but it was then too late to do any more than to summon Stanley's instant attendance—a summons which Stanley disobeyed. When the battle began no vigor or spirit was displayed in the king's army. When Lord Stanley suddenly turned and attacked the royal troops under the king's immediate command, Richard III. saw that all was lost. In the courage of despair, he plunged into the thickest of the fight, crying: "Treason! treason!" Hewing down all be-

fore him, the desperate king made his way to the Earl of Richmond, who shrank back at his approach. The earl's attendants gathered around Richard III., who fought like a lion at bay until he fell covered with wounds, and expired. His helmet was so beaten in by the blows it had received that its form was quite destroyed. The royal crown, which had rolled under a hawthorn-bush when the king fell, was placed upon the head of the victorious Earl of Richmond, who was crowned on the battlefield by Sir William Stanley, brother of Lord Stanley, and was hailed from all parts of the field with shouts of "God save King Henry VII.!"

Desperate Valor and Death of Richard III.

Henry Tudor Crowned on the Battlefield as Henry VII.

There was unbounded rejoicing throughout England because of the defeat and death of the royal murderer and usurper, who had committed so many crimes to obtain the English crown.

Rejoicing in England.

Most of the English nobles had deserted Richard III.; but the Duke of Norfolk was one of the few who had remained loyal to him. Some friend had tried to save him from his impending fate, and had that morning thrown an admonitory letter into his tent, which read thus:

The Duke of Norfolk's Loyalty to Richard III.

> "Jockey of Norfolk, be not too bold,
> For Dickon, thy master, is bought and sold."

Richard III. had reigned little more than two years (June 22, 1483–August 22, 1485); and was thirty-four years of age when he was slain. He fell near a brook which runs through Bosworth-field, the water of which long remained stained with blood; and it is said that the people in the vicinity are averse to using it even at the present day. After suffering many indignities, the body of Richard III. was finally buried in a church at Leicester; but his bones were not permitted to rest even there. At the time of the destruction of the religious houses, during the reign of Henry VIII., they were torn from their grave; and his stone coffin was converted into a watering-trough for horses at an inn at Leicester.

Indignities to the Remains of Richard III.

The battle of Bosworth—the most important in English history since that of Hastings—ended at once, not only the House of York and the Wars of the Roses, but also the renowned royal race of the Plantagenets and the Feudal System in England; and with Henry VII., the first Tudor who occupied the English throne, began modern England. The Tudor dynasty furnished five sovereigns to England, whose aggregate reigns amounted to one hundred and eighteen years (A. D. 1485–1603).

Importance of the Battle of Bosworth.

Henry VII., First of the Tudor Dynasty.

The great results of the Wars of the Roses were the destruction of the ancient nobility of England and the overthrow of the Feudal System, the loss of constitutional liberty, and the decline of civilization.

Results of the Wars of the Roses.

Destruction of the Old Nobility of England.

The Wars of the Roses were peculiarly the wars of the English nobles. All the great feudal families, gathered around the rival standards of the Houses of York and Lancaster, were hurled against each other in battle after battle with terrible loss. Confiscations, executions and exile still further diminished the numbers and power of the nobility, until at the end of these bloody civil wars the ancient baronage of England was left in a hopeless wreck. It is said that at some time during these civil wars the crown held one-fifth of all the real estate of England as its share of the spoils. Both lands and titles remained, some of them to return to their former owners or their kindred, but more went to enrich the king and to ennoble the king's favorites, who were loaded with wealth and dignities.

The New Nobility.

The nobility, which was thus reëstablished by royal clemency and royal bounty, was deprived of its traditional power and independence. It very little resembled the grand feudal race that, descending from William the Conqueror, was as old and as proud as the throne which he reared. It little resembled the lordly race that had stood so firmly between the throne and the people for centuries, the support of the throne against faction, and the defense of the people against tyranny.

The Old-time Baron of England.

It is impossible not to feel an admiration for the old-time baron of England, whether we think of him in time of peace, in the old ancestral castle, extending a hearty though rude hospitality, or in time of war, closing his gates and bidding defiance to all his foes. He feasted and fought with the same relish, and was no respecter of persons, as he buckled on his armor with the same readiness for a tilt with the king's forces as with those of his quarrelsome neighbor. Said Earl Warrenne, upon flinging his sword upon the table before the commissioners which Edward I. had sent to examine his title-deed: "That, sirs, is my title-deed." Said Henry III. to Earl Bigod, who had refused the king's demand for aid: "I will send reapers and reap your fields for you." The fearless earl replied: "And I will send you back the heads of your reapers."

Earls Warrenne and Bigod.

The Barons and the Great Charter.

We must honor the patriotism of these old-time barons of our mother country, as well as admire their fearlessness. They came to the front in periods of national peril time and again. The barons of England wrested the Great Charter of English freedom from the tyrant King John. History is silent as to which of the immortal twenty-four was the Thomas Jefferson who originated and framed that wonderful instrument—the origin and basis of all English and American liberty. But history is sufficiently definite as to the name of Simon de Montfort, the leader of that other immortal twenty-four who founded the House of Commons, the republican portion of the English system, in the very face of the throne itself.

The Feudal System fell with the ancient baronage. Feudalism, as a power in England, expired in a bright but lurid flame, when the great Earl of Warwick, after towering high above the throne itself for a short time, suddenly fell on the bloody field of Barnet. We can only regret that the Earl of Warwick, "the Last of the Barons," was not the best as well as the last of his race.

The Earl of Warwick, "the Last of the Barons."

From Magna Charta to the Wars of the Roses there was a slow but real development of constitutional freedom, almost every reign being signalized by either a limitation of the royal prerogative or an enlargement of popular rights.

Constitutional Freedom.

When the Wars of the Roses commenced, the following principles had been established, so far as the intelligence of the people and the arbitrary dispositions of kings permitted: The king had lost the right to levy taxes, to make or alter the laws, and imprison or punish subjects arbitrarily. Parliament had gained, in addition to the control of laws and taxes, the right to impeach and remove the ministers of the crown, the right to direct and investigate expenditures, to depose the king, and to settle questions of peace and war.

Power of King and Parliament.

All these great principles and guaranties, won through centuries of toil and suffering, were rudely swept away during the Wars of the Roses; and the English nation did not sufficiently recover itself to reassert and reëstablish them for more than a century later. When the king lost the right to levy taxes without the consent of Parliament, during the reign of Edward I., England passed from an absolute to a limited monarchy. Edward IV. reëstablished absolute monarchy in England, which continued growing more and more absolute, until, during the reign of Henry VIII., it became a despotism as unmitigated as that of the Czar of Russia.

Loss of Constitutional Liberty.

This will not appear so strange when we consider that the English nobility, so shattered and dependent, were without power or prestige, and were no longer able, if willing, to stand between the English people and royal oppression. The Church, which had so frequently stood side by side with the nobility in the struggle with tyranny, was infected with heresy and paralyzed through fear of another reformation. The people of England were not yet sufficiently enlightened to understand or maintain their own rights. Thus the English crown was left with little or no restraint, and the descent in the direction of absolutism was easy and rapid. Charters, statutes and human rights were trodden under the sovereign's feet with perfect impunity. In the language of Green: "The crown, which only fifty years before had been the sport of every faction, towered into solitary greatness."

Weakness of Nobility and Church and Growth of Absolute Royal Power.

Although constitutional liberty appeared to have been lost to England after the Wars of the Roses, none of the great statutes which had

Permanence of Magna Charta and the House of Commons.

advanced the cause of human rights was ever abrogated. Kings and ministers recognized Magna Charta as the supreme law of the land, even while they trampled its provisions under their feet. The House of Commons was never abolished, though the Monarchy and the House of Lords once were. The popular branch of the English Parliament never ceased to exist for a moment, though hated by tyrants, and thus prorogued, dissolved, overawed and ignored.

Brutalizing and Demoralizing Effect of the Wars of the Roses.

The barbarous manner in which the Wars of the Roses were conducted was most debasing, to the people who were spectators in the horrible drama, as well as to the soldiers who were the actors. The savage order in many of the battles of these sanguinary civil wars was: "No quarter." But the cold-blooded executions which followed almost every battle were still more demoralizing. The hideous and sickening spectacle of ghastly heads and limbs of human bodies, impaled on stakes and placed on walls in public places, and constantly staring the people in the face, had a most brutalizing effect.

Debasing Influence of these Civil Wars.

No Principle at Stake.

The Wars of the Roses had a most pernicious and debasing influence upon the young. The fierce animosities which these destructive civil wars engendered consumed the nobler qualities of individual character. During the entire gloomy period there is scarcely a chivalrous deed to be found recorded. There was no principle whatever at stake in the Wars of the Roses. It was simply a struggle for power between two rival families. The welfare of the English nation was sacrificed to the interests of the rival Houses of York and Lancaster. The patriot was sunk in the partisan. The baser passions reigned supreme, and civilization was on the decline.

SECTION VI.—ACCESSION OF THE TUDORS AND END OF FEUDALISM (A. D. 1485–1509).

Henry VII., A. D. 1485–1509.

His Marriage with Princess Elizabeth, Daughter of Edward IV.

Henry VII. was formally crowned at Westminster, and was married to Elizabeth of York, the daughter of Edward IV., January 18, 1486. His hatred of the House of York was so great that he was very much averse to this marriage, and he is said to have treated his wife with great coldness as a result of this feeling. The throne of Henry VII., under ordinary circumstances, would have been imperiled, from the fact that he was the heir of the House of Lancaster; but his marriage with the heiress of the House of York, by uniting the claims of the two rival families which had for thirty years drenched England with the blood of her own people, entirely appeased all jealousies; while the universal national joy and general satisfaction at the overthrow and death of the infamous Richard III. fully reconciled all parties of the English peo-

ple to Henry Tudor's usurpation. The union of the Red and White Roses, in the marriage of Henry VII. with Elizabeth of York, was a source of great strength to all the Tudor sovereigns of England.

Union of the Red and White Roses.

Henry VII. was only thirty years of age when the victory of Bosworth-field made him King of England. He was of a tall and slender physical form, a pale complexion, and of a grave, sedate deportment. He was cold, cautious and designing, and was without a single amiable quality. He did not possess any brilliant natural abilities, but he made up for want of quickness by the most diligent application, and was rewarded for his perseverance by gaining a reputation for wisdom which he lacked. He was an unkind husband, a careful though not an affectionate father, a rigorous master and a bitter enemy.

Character of Henry VII.

His whole conduct and policy, from the beginning to the end of his reign, were swayed by two ruling passions—his avarice, and his hatred of the House of York. The first command that he issued, even before he had left the bloody field of Bosworth, where he had been proclaimed king, was that persons should be sent into Yorkshire to seize young Edward Plantagenet, Earl of Warwick, son of the Duke of Clarence.

His Two Passions.

Henry's avarice was not without its advantages to his kingdom, though an odious vice in itself, and particularly obnoxious in a king. It led him to encourage commerce, and to lay the foundations of the English navy. The *Great Henry*, a four-masted ship which he caused to be built, was, properly speaking, the first ship in the English navy; as hitherto, when the king wanted a fleet, his only expedient was to hire or purchase ships from foreign merchants.

The Great Henry.

The harshness of Henry VII. toward the House of York naturally irritated the members of that family against him, and thus gave rise to two Yorkist insurrections, headed by two impostors who claimed the English crown. The first of these risings was in 1487, when an Oxford priest, named Simon, instructed Lambert Simnel, an Oxford baker's son, to personate the young Earl of Warwick, the son of the Duke of Clarence. This young earl had been imprisoned in the Tower by Henry VII., and it was now pretended that he had escaped therefrom.

Lambert Simnel's Imposture.

Lambert Simnel, the pretended Earl of Warwick, was furnished with troops by Margaret, the widow of Duke Charles the Bold of Burgundy and the sister of Edward IV., for the purpose of enforcing his pretensions to the English throne. He was joined by the Earl of Lincoln and Lord Lovel. When Henry VII. heard of this false Earl of Warwick he caused the real earl to be taken from the Tower and carried in procession through London, permitting all to converse with him who so desired. This proceeding satisfied the people of England; but it did not convince those of Ireland, who were warmly attached to the House of York, and especially to the Duke of Clarence, who had been Lord

The Real Earl of Warwick Shown to the People.

Lieutenant of Ireland. When Lambert Simnel landed in Dublin as Edward Plantagenet, Earl of Warwick, all Ireland greeted him with loyal acclamations as "King Edward VI."

Lambert Simnel's Irish and German Forces in England.

With the few nobles who joined him, and some troops which he had raised in Ireland, Lambert Simnel invaded England, landing in Lancashire, where he expected to be joined by the inhabitants; while the dowager Duchess of Burgundy, who had been so easily convinced or so willingly deceived by the imposture, sent over a German army to invade England in concert with the impostor's Irish forces. Simnel was disappointed in his expectations of an English rising in his favor, and he had advanced as far as Stoke-upon-Trent without receiving any reinforcements from the inhabitants. He was utterly defeated and his cause irretrievably crushed by the royal army under King Henry VII. in the battle of Stoke-upon-Trent, August 16, 1487. Simnel was taken prisoner in this battle, and was punished with less severity than he could have expected under the circumstances, as the king contented himself with degrading the impostor by making him a scullion in the royal kitchen. Simnel was subsequently promoted to the office of falconer to the king, thus lessening his degradation. Most of Simnel's followers lost their lives in the battle of Stoke-upon-Trent, among them the Earl of Lincoln; while Lord Lovel fled, and was no more seen afterward.

Battle of Stoke-upon-Trent.

Simnel's Capture and Degradation.

Benefits of the Avarice of Henry VII.

A Benevolence.

Invasion of France by Henry VII.

Bribed to Return.

The notorious avarice of Henry VII. was so far a benefit to England that it restrained the king from engaging in expensive foreign wars. In 1487 he availed himself of a quarrel with France about the duchy of Brittany to fill his own coffers. Under the pretense of aiding the young Duchess Anne of Brittany, he obtained liberal supplies of money from Parliament, and extorted a forced loan called a *benevolence* from the rich merchants. In 1492 he invaded France and besieged Boulogne for a few days, after which he suffered himself to be bought off by King Charles VIII. of France for the sum of one hundred and forty-nine thousand pounds sterling, and returned to England. Thus, like a shrewd merchant, Henry VII. made a double profit out of friends and foes by filling his coffers at the expense of both the English and French nations.

Perkin Warbeck's Imposture.

The dowager Duchess of Burgundy, seeing how easily many people in England had been deceived by the fraud of Lambert Simnel, resolved upon a new project, contrived with more art and plausibility. She first caused a rumor to be circulated that the young Duke of York, the brother of Edward V., was alive and had escaped from the Tower after his imprisonment there by Richard III. She then found a youth, named Perkin Warbeck, son of a Jewish merchant of Tournay, in Flanders. This youth, with his courtly manners and speech, with his intel-

lectual gifts and accomplishments, made him more presentable as a prince than poor Lambert Simnel, the Oxford baker's boy, had been. Perkin Warbeck bore a strong resemblance to the Plantagenets; and his winning manners and demeanor, his princely and dignified bearing, fascinated all who conversed with him and persuaded them that he was a prince.

His Reception by Charles VIII. of France and the Dowager Duchess of Burgundy.

Perkin Warbeck first presented himself at the court of France, and was well received by King Charles VIII. He was dismissed at the demand of Henry VII., but with courtesy; after which he sought the protection of his "aunt," as he called the Duchess of Burgundy. She received him as if he had been a complete stranger to her, and pretended to disbelieve his story; after which, as if suddenly convinced by his answers to her questions, she embraced him with a transport of joy, declaring that he was actually her long-lost nephew, and giving him the title of the "White Rose of England."

Confessed Murderers of Edward V. and His Brother.

Henry VII. was now anxious to convince the world that the real Duke of York had been murdered in the Tower by the secret orders of Richard III., and he obtained the confession of two persons who acknowledged that they had been concerned in putting him to death. But these confessions received little credit at the time, though they were corroborated two centuries later, as we have before remarked.

Disclosure of the Conspiracy and Execution of the Conspirators.

Henry VII. also sought to ascertain the true story of Perkin Warbeck; but the secret was kept so well, and his origin was so obscure, that this was no easy matter. Finally the king won over one of the impostor's confidants, and from this individual Henry VII. obtained a knowledge of almost the entire history of the conspiracy, with the names of all those in England who favored it. The story was published for the information of the English nation; and those concerned in it were all seized in one day, and were immediately tried, condemned and executed.

Sir William Stanley Beheaded.

Sir William Stanley, who had saved the life of Henry VII. in the battle of Bosworth, and who had also crowned the king on that famous field, was beheaded for having been heard to say that if he were sure that Perkin Warbeck was the real Duke of York he would never bear arms against him. As Sir William Stanley was one of the richest gentlemen in England, it was believed that the king had put him to death for the purpose of confiscating his vast wealth to the crown.

Perkin Warbeck Received and Aided by James IV. of Scotland.

After two unsuccessful efforts to effect a landing in England, Perkin Warbeck proceeded to Scotland, in 1496, where he was kindly welcomed by King James IV., who espoused the impostor's cause with the utmost warmth. The Scottish king also gave to Warbeck in marriage the Lady Catharine Gordon, one of the noblest and most accomplished ladies of the time. James IV. did not content himself with simple promises; but in October, 1496, he invaded England with a Scottish army

Scottish Invasion of England.

for the purpose of placing Perkin Warbeck on the English throne, inviting all the people of England to rally to the standard of their rightful sovereign, "King Richard IV." The Scots immediately commenced plundering, in accordance with their usual custom; and Warbeck expostulated with King James IV. on this barbarous manner of conducting the war, declaring that he would rather lose a crown than to obtain it by the ruin of his subjects.

Warbeck's Retreat to Scotland.

It was expected that upon Perkin Warbeck's first appearance in England all the partisans of the House of York would rise in his favor, but in this he was disappointed. None came to his assistance, and he was obliged to retreat toward Edinburgh. King Henry VII. was always a

Truce with Scotland.

better diplomat than soldier, and preferred concluding a treaty with King James IV. to meeting him on the battlefield, and a truce was made between the two sovereigns.

Warbeck in Ireland and Cornwall.

In consequence of the treaty between the Kings of England and Scotland, Perkin Warbeck went to Ireland with about one hundred and twenty followers, and with his devoted wife, who would not forsake her husband. The next year, A. D. 1497, the impostor returned to England, landing in Cornwall, where the poor miners had in the meantime been driven to rebellion by oppressive taxation. The pretended Duke of York was soon at the head of seven thousand Cornishmen, and besieged Exeter; but on the approach of the royal forces, Warbeck, seeing that all resistance would be in vain, deserted his companions and

His Flight and Cowardice.

fled for refuge by night to the sanctuary of Beaulieu, in the New Forest. This unkingly cowardice satisfied the English people that the pretended Duke of York was no Plantagenet.

His Capture, Imprisonment, Escape, Recapture and Confession.

The king's troops soon surrounded the sanctuary, and Henry VII. would have gladly forced open its gates and seized his victim, but was persuaded to attempt to entice the impostor out by a promise of sparing his life. On receiving this pledge, Warbeck surrendered himself to the king, and was conveyed a prisoner to the Tower. He escaped from that prison, but was soon recaptured and brought back; after which he was exposed upon a scaffold, and forced to read aloud a written paper in which he confessed himself to be an impostor.

His Plot with the Earl of Warwick for Escape.

Perkin Warbeck afterwards found means to have some communication with his fellow-prisoner, Edward Plantagenet, Earl of Warwick; and the two contrived a plan for their escape, the discovery of which was followed by the execution of both. Perkin Warbeck was hanged at Tyburn, the place of execution for common malefactors, November

Execution of Both.

23, 1499; while the Earl of Warwick, from the respect due to his undoubted rank, was beheaded on Tower Hill a few days later.

After Perkin Warbeck had been taken a prisoner to the Tower, his young and beautiful wife was sent for by King Henry VII., who, not-

withstanding the hardness of his heart, appears to have been touched by her youth, her beauty, her grief, and her devotion to her husband. The king said some kind and soothing words to her, and presented her to his queen, with whom she remained as an attendant. She had an adequate allowance conferred on her, and was much beloved at the English court, where she was called the "White Rose of England."

Warbeck's Widow Called to Reside at the Royal Court.

The king's revengeful act in executing the Earl of Warwick destroyed whatever love the English people may have felt for their king. The young earl was not executed because he was guilty of any offense deserving death, but because he was the last male Plantagenet, and, as such, was a source of possible danger to the throne of Henry VII.

The Execution of the Earl of Warwick.

The attempts of the impostors, Lambert Simnel and Perkin Warbeck, caused Parliament to pass the *Statute of Allegiance*, providing that none should be punished for allegiance to the reigning king, whether he be king *de jure* (by right), or king *de facto* (in fact). This statute was intended to guard against such wholesale executions, in case of a change of dynasty, as followed the fortunes of the Red and White Roses, when men were pronounced traitors one day for adhering to the House of York, and beheaded the next day for supporting the House of Lancaster.

The Statute of Allegiance.

As we have already remarked, the reign of Henry VII. was the beginning of the modern era. The fall of the ancient baronage of England was a great benefit to the nation, as their iron hand had rested heavily upon the English people; though the immediate effect was to increase the power of the king, thus giving the Tudors greater power than the Plantagenets had possessed. Nevertheless, the diffusion of intelligence through printed books, the revival of learning and the new enthusiasm awakened in the study of Greek and Roman literature, the numerous cheap editions of the printed Bible, and the mental excitement caused by the stirring events in general which ushered in the modern era, led to great progress in art, science, literature and the refinements of home life.

Beginning of the Modern Era.

During this period the Greek and Hebrew languages began to be studied in the great universities of England and throughout Europe. Mediæval superstitions were passing away; and men were beginning to think for themselves, in philosophy and science, also in politics and religion. Here began modern civilization, based not on the essential slavery of the Feudal System, as was the mediæval, but on the growing intelligence and increasing importance of the masses.

Growth of Learning and Rise of Modern Civilization.

It was during this time that the great Portuguese navigators discovered the sea-passage to India around Southern Africa; that Columbus, in the services of Spain, made his voyages of discovery, which opened the New World to the eyes of Europe. England had her share

Discovery of America by Columbus and the Cabots.

in these maritime enterprises, as it was under the auspices of Henry VII. that John and Sebastian Cabot made their several voyages which revealed the existence of the North American continent to European eyes; and the brave and hardy English, inclined to the sea, both from their Saxon and Norman blood and from their island home, were soon to be found in the remotest quarters of the globe.

Diffusion of the English Race.

Exactions and Extortions of Henry VII.

Henry VII. had always been avaricious and miserly, but in the latter part of his reign his exactions caused him to be cordially hated by his subjects, from whom he extorted money by many unlawful devices. His chief instruments in these extortions were two lawyers, Richard Empson and Edmund Dudley, who searched out obsolete statutes to enable the king to impose unjust fines and penalties for the most trifling offenses; and forgotten tenures and petty violations of law were so many traps to bring multitudes of men into the courts of justice, and the fines exacted from these filled the royal treasury with a constant stream of wealth.

His Chief Instruments, Empson and Dudley.

Nature of the Benevolences.

The royal miser also increased his wealth by means of taxes and benevolences. A benevolence originally meant a voluntary contribution for the king's expenses, made among his immediate vassals. Edward IV. extended it to the entire kingdom; and, though the name implies a free gift, a benevolence became a very arbitrary tax, as the king could quarter soldiers on those who refused to contribute, and could annoy them in many other ways, for which reason the people called these benevolences *malevolences*.

Morton's Fork.

Edward IV. had exacted benevolences from the rich only, but Henry VII. extorted them from the poor as well. By a crafty device, called from its author, *Morton's Fork*, the king extorted money from those who made a display in their style of living, as display was evidence of wealth; and from those who made no display he exacted gifts, on the ground that they must have become rich by their economy. Thus both the extravagant and the thrifty were the king's victims.

Statute of Liveries.

Henry VII. neglected no opportunity to seize the estates of those attainted, and acquired a large income by the rigid execution of the *Statute of Liveries*. In feudal times castles of the barons resembled armed camps. Crowds of idle vassals, supported by the bounty of their lords, were always ready, at their bidding, to storm a castle or menace a throne. The Statute of Liveries, which had been enacted in a previous reign, was intended to break up these great military establishments. This statute had fallen into disuse, but was revived and executed by Henry VII. with fine and forfeiture.

The Star Chamber.

A new court, called the *Star Chamber*, was appointed to have special reference to cases coming under the Statute of Liveries. This court, which received its name from the star decorations of the room in which

the sessions were held, was solely under the king's control, and became an instrument of great oppression in subsequent reigns.

Purpose of Henry VII. in Acquiring Wealth.

By sharp practice and rigid economy, Henry VII. amassed a fortune equal to ten million pounds sterling. Though avaricious and miserly by nature, there was policy in his desire for wealth. The one grand purpose which he had in view was the establishment of the throne of the Tudors on a solid and secure basis. He knew very well that the great power of the Commons lay in their control of the public funds, and that the possession of adequate means on the king's part was the royal road to independence. He therefore exerted himself to obtain money without having recourse to Parliament, and in this he succeeded so well that there was but one session of Parliament during the last thirteen years of his reign.

Prince Henry's Marriage with Catharine of Aragon.

Henry VII. also endeavored to strengthen the Tudor dynasty by marriage alliances with other reigning families of Europe. In 1501 his eldest son, Arthur, Prince of Wales, was married to Catharine of Aragon, daughter of Ferdinand and Isabella, the reigning sovereigns of Spain, then the most powerful kingdom in Europe. The young prince died five months after his marriage; and Henry VII., unwilling to part with the rich dowry of the Spanish princess, obtained a dispensation from Pope Alexander VI. permitting his next son Henry, who then became the heir to the English crown, to marry the young widow. Prince Henry, who was then only twelve years of age, and therefore much younger than his bride, was very much opposed to the match; but his father forced him into it.

Princess Margaret's Marriage with James IV. of Scotland.

In 1503 the Princess Margaret, the eldest daughter of Henry VII., was married to King James IV. of Scotland—a marriage from which the Stuarts derived their title to the crown of England.

Forced Treaty of Commerce with the Netherlands.

In 1506 the Princess Catharine had a forced visit from her eldest sister, the wife of the Archduke Philip of Austria. The archduke's vessel was driven by a storm into an English harbor; and Henry VII. refused to allow his guests to depart until he had wrested from them a new treaty of commerce with the Netherlands, and some other concessions equally as advantageous to himself.

Chapel of Henry VII. at Westminster Abbey.

The only feeling which was strong enough to overcome the avarice of Henry VII. was his ambition to have a splendid tomb. With this view he erected what is known as the Chapel of Henry VII., at Westminster Abbey. He called upon the best architects of the time to furnish designs for this magnificent structure, on which the king did not grudge the expenditure of large sums of his hoarded wealth. This chapel is still one of the most beautiful edifices in England.

A violent attack of the gout warned Henry VII. that his end was approaching, and he devoted his remaining days to preparations for

Avarice in His Dying Acts.

the next world. Even his dying acts were tinctured by that calculating, money-loving spirit which had been the ruling passion of his life. He ordered two thousand prayers to be said for the repose of his soul, and for these prayers sixpence apiece was to be paid.

His Last Good Acts.

Several of his bequests, however, showed that he still had some conscience. He ordered that restitution should be made to those persons from whom Empson and Dudley had extorted more than the law would warrant. He also ordered the payment of the debts of all persons who were imprisoned in London for sums less than forty shillings.

His Death.

He died at his new palace of Richmond, April 21, 1509, in the fifty-fourth year of his age and the twenty-fourth of his reign, and was buried in the magnificent chapel which he had built for his tomb at Westminster Abbey.

SECTION VII.—NEIGHBORING KINGDOM OF SCOTLAND IN MEDIÆVAL TIMES (A. D. 843–1513).

Ancient Caledonia.

From the earliest period, the northern part of the island of Britain —anciently called *Caledonia* (now Scotland)—had been occupied by two wild Celtic tribes, known as *Scots* and *Picts*, whom the Romans could not subdue, and who made plundering raids into Britain.

Picts and Scots.

Bands of Scots continued their migrations from Ireland to Scotland as late as the sixth century. The Scots settled along the western shores of Caledonia, to which they gave their name. They were led by Fergus Mac Erc, who founded a kingdom.

Northumbria and Strathclyde.

In the sixth century hordes of Angles from Germany settled in the south-eastern part of Caledonia, which constituted a part of the Angle kingdom of Northumbria; while the Celtic, or British kingdom of Strathclyde embraced South-western Scotland and the modern English counties of Cumberland and Westmoreland.

Introduction of Christianity by St. Columba.

Christianity was introduced into Scotland in the sixth century by St. Columba, an Irishman, who was welcomed by Conal, the King of the Scots, who gave him the island of Iona, west of Mull. There St. Columba and his comrades erected a church and several dwellings, and converted the Picts; the Scots having been converted before their migration from Ireland. From the school of theology established at Iona zealous missionaries were sent to Britain, Gaul, Germany, Helvetia and Italy.

D'Aubigne's Remarks.

Says D'Aubigné: "The free church of the Scots and Britons did more for the conversion of Central Europe than the half-enslaved Church of Rome." The same writer says: "The sages of Iona knew nothing of transubstantiation, or of the withdrawal of the cup in the

Lord's Supper, or of auricular confession, or of prayers for the dead, or tapers, or incense. They celebrated Easter on a different day from Rome. Synodal assemblies regulated the affairs of the Church, and the papal supremacy was unknown."

Northumbrian Conquests in Scotland.

The Angles of Northumberland were converted to Christianity in the seventh century. Oswald, King of Northumbria, extended his conquests beyond the Friths of Forth and Clyde; and his son and successor, Oswin, reduced the Scots to tribute; but the Angles were routed in the next reign, their king was slain, and the Picts and Scots recovered their independence.

Kingdom of Scotland.

In 843 KENNETH MACALPIN, King of the Scots, reduced the Angles, or English, north of Adrian's Wall under his dominion. He also extended his authority over the Picts, and thus founded the *Kingdom of Scotland.*

The Northmen in Scotland.

The reigns of Kenneth's brother DONALD (A. D. 854–858) and his son CONSTANTINE I. (A. D. 858–874) were passed in struggles with the Northmen, who ravaged Scotland, as well as England and Ireland. Harald Fairhair, King of Norway, conquered the Orkney and the Shetland Isles. A Danish chief named Cyric, or Grig, seized the throne of Scotland and reigned eighteen years.

Constantine II. and His Defeat in England.

CONSTANTINE II., the great-grandson of Kenneth MacAlpin, reigned over Scotland from A. D. 900 to 943. He placed his kingdom under the protection of Edward the Elder, King of England. In 937 he joined the Danes in an effort to recover Northumberland, from which they had been driven by the English king Athelstan, but the allies were beaten by the English in the bloody battle of Brunanburgh. Constantine II. abdicated in 943, and became a monk in the monastery of St. Andrews.

Malcolm I. and Strathclyde.

MALCOLM I. was the next King of Scotland (A. D. 944–954). He obtained the Kingdom of Strathclyde from the English king as a fief. During the reign of INDUFF (A. D. 954–961), Edinburgh, or Edwin's Burgh, founded by King Edwin of Northumberland, came into the possession of the Scots. The reigns of DUFF, COLIN, KENNETH II., CONSTANTINE III. and KENNETH III. were passed in wars with the Kingdom of Strathclyde or with their own rebellious subjects, and all of them died in battle.

Malcolm II. and Lothian.

MALCOLM II. (A. D. 1003–1033), the grandson of Malcolm I., was the last of the dynasty of Kenneth MacAlpin. He wrested Lothian from the Earl of Northumberland in 1018, and annexed it to Scotland. In 1031 Malcolm II. acknowledged Canute the Great, King of England and Denmark, as his suzerain. Malcolm II. died in 1034, transmitting the Scottish crown to his grandson DUNCAN, after having caused the legitimate heir, grandson of Kenneth III., to be murdered.

Duncan.

His Defeat and Death by Macbeth.

Gruach, the murdered prince's sister, was married to Macbeth, Earl of Moray, one of the most powerful of the Scottish chiefs. Duncan took the field against the rebellious Highland clans. Macbeth determined to avenge the murder of his brother-in-law, and now attacked Duncan in his province and defeated him in battle, and afterward killed him, A. D. 1040.

Macbeth's Good Reign.

Macbeth then made himself King of Scotland, and reigned seventeen years (A. D. 1040–1057). He governed with firmness and wisdom, and Scotland prospered under his rule. He and his queen were very kind to the poor, and sent alms to the poor at Rome.

His Sons.

Crinan, Abbot of Dunkeld, Duncan's father, instigated Siward, Earl of Northumberland, to take up the cause of Malcolm and Donald Bane, Duncan's sons. Macbeth was driven from the Scottish throne, but recovered it immediately after Siward's withdrawal.

His Defeat and Death.

Siward again invaded Scotland some years later in behalf of Duncan's sons, whereupon a struggle of four years followed, ending in Macbeth's defeat and death in the battle of Lumphanan, in Aberdeenshire, A. D. 1057.

Malcolm Canmore.

Malcolm III., Canmore, "the Great Head," then became King of Scotland. The Norman Conquest of England drove many Anglo-Saxons into Scotland, and these were kindly welcomed by Malcolm Canmore. Among these English refugees were Edgar Atheling, his mother and his two sisters, Margaret and Christina. Immediately after the Norman Conquest of England, Malcolm Canmore had sent in his nominal homage to William the Conqueror.

His Raid into England.

The Scottish king now espoused the cause of Edgar Atheling as the rightful King of England, and made a bloody raid into England, in the districts of Cleveland and Durham. Soon afterwards Malcolm Canmore married Edgar Atheling's sister Margaret.

His Submission to William the Conqueror.

In 1072 William the Conqueror invaded Scotland with an Anglo-Norman fleet and army to chastise Malcolm Canmore for his raid into England. The Norman King of England advanced as far as Abernethy, on the Tay, where Malcolm Canmore met him and did homage to him as his vassal, and placed his son Duncan, the child of his first wife, in William's hands as a hostage for his good behavior.

His Second Raid into England.

When William the Conqueror was absent in Normandy several years afterward, Malcolm Canmore made another raid into England, ravaging the country as far as the Tyne. William's eldest son, Robert, marched towards the Scottish border to repel this invasion, but the matter was settled by negotiation between Malcolm Canmore and Robert.

His Third and Fourth Raids into England.

In 1092, during the reign of William Rufus in England, Malcolm Canmore invaded England a third time. The English king marched into Scotland, and Malcolm Canmore averted his wrath by renewing his homage as a vassal monarch of the English sovereign. As William

Rufus failed to fulfill his part of the agreement, Malcolm Canmore invaded England a fourth time in 1093, with a powerful Scottish army, but was defeated and slain in a battle at Alnwick Castle. His son and heir, Edward, also perished on this fatal field. Malcolm Canmore's queen, Margaret, died of grief upon hearing of the death of her husband and son. She had used her influence over her husband to reform many abuses in the kingdom, and had introduced more refinement and civilization into Scotland than the Scots had ever known before.

His Defeat and Death.

Donald Bane, Malcolm Canmore's brother, was elected King of Scotland by the chiefs of the Scottish clans. Duncan, Malcolm Canmore's eldest son, who had been kept in England as a hostage, induced the English king to aid him with an army to recover the Scottish throne, which he promised to hold as a vassal of the English crown. With this aid Duncan drove Donald Bane from the Scottish throne and reigned for a few months, A. D. 1094.

Donald Bane.

Duncan.

Donald Bane, aided by Edmund, Malcolm Canmore's eldest surviving son by his marriage with Margaret, renewed the civil war, defeated Duncan, put him to death, and exiled the other members of his family. Donald Bane then reigned three years (A. D. 1094–1097), at the end of which he was defeated by an English army under Edgar Atheling, who placed his nephew Edgar upon the throne of Scotland, and put out Donald Bane's eyes and cast him into prison. Edmund took refuge in an English monastery, where he died.

His Overthrow and Death.

Donald Bane's Overthrow.

Edgar, who was the son of Malcolm Canmore and Margaret, carried out the reforms commenced by his mother; and during his reign the people of the Lowlands of Scotland generally adopted the Anglo-Saxon civilization, and the old Celtic customs disappeared. This change in the customs and manners of the Southern Scots widely separated them from the real Scots of the Highlands, who thenceforth were considered the natural enemies of law and order, and the perpetual disturbers of the peace and prosperity of the Scottish kingdom.

Edgar.

The Lowlanders and Highlanders.

Edgar reigned over Scotland ten years (A. D. 1097–1107). In the early part of his reign, Magnus Barefoot, King of Norway, seized the Orkneys and the Scandinavian earldom on the mainland of Scotland, placing them under the government of his own son, Sigurd; after which he invaded and ravaged the Hebrides. At the death of Magnus Barefoot the Orkneys and the Hebrides again fell into the possession of the Scots. The chiefs of these islands, called *Lords of the Isles*, thenceforth had a convenient way of declaring themselves vassals of the Kings of Norway whenever they desired to evade their feudal obligations to the Kings of Scotland.

Norwegian Invasion of the Orkneys and Hebrides.

The Lords of the Isles.

During Edgar's entire reign the relations between Scotland and England were friendly, and Edgar's sister Edith was married to King

Edgar's Sister Edith.

Henry I. of England. She took the Norman name of Matilda, or Maud, and was very much beloved by her husband and by the English people. On his death-bed, in 1107, Edgar separated Strathclyde from the rest of the dominions of the Kingdom of Scotland, bestowing it upon his brother David.

Alexander I. and His Triumph over Rebels.

Edgar was succeeded on the throne of Scotland by his brother, ALEXANDER I., a man of great energy and of strong, unyielding will. He was involved in constant trouble with his unruly subjects by his efforts to govern them. In the early part of his reign Alexander I. was confronted by a formidable revolt of the men of Merne and Moray. Alexander I. promptly marched against the rebels and defeated them in a battle on the northern shore of the Frith of Moray. He took a bloody vengeance on the rebels, and founded the Abbey of Scone to commemorate his victory.

Alexander I. and the Archbishop of York.

Alexander I. vigorously maintained the independence of the Church of Scotland against the Archbishop of York, who claimed ecclesiastical jurisdiction over the entire Kingdom of Scotland. Alexander I. would not permit any appeal to the Pope, and refused to listen for a moment to any claim of the Northern Metropolitan of England to ecclesiastical authority in Scotland.

David I. and the Moray Rebellion.

Alexander I. died in 1124, and, as he was childless, his brother, DAVID I., ascended the Scottish throne; whereupon Strathclyde again became a part of the Scottish kingdom. In the early part of David's reign a rebellion broke out in Moray, but it was suppressed by the king, with the assistance of some Norman knights whom he had gathered about him when he was Prince of Strathclyde. He declared Moray forfeited, and divided it among his Norman knights.

David I. and the Civil War in England.

David I. took part in the civil war in England between his niece Matilda and Stephen of Blois, in behalf of his niece. Stephen forced the Scottish king to retire from the struggle. David I. would not violate his oath of fealty to Matilda, but evaded it by investing his son Henry with the Honor of Huntingdon, an English barony which he had previously held. The English king conferred Carlisle and Doncaster on Prince Henry, who went to London with Stephen, and took precedence of the English barons at Stephen's court. Jealous of this honor to the Scottish prince, the English barons left Stephen's court in a body. David I. resented this insult by recalling his son to Scotland and preparing to invade England.

His Defeats in England.

In 1138 David I. ravaged the northern counties of England, but was defeated by the English in the great Battle of the Standard, at North Allerton. Peace was concluded at Durham the next year. David's son Henry was invested with the English earldom of Northumberland. In 1141 David I. again took up arms in Matilda's behalf, and was al-

most taken prisoner when her army was defeated in the battle of Winchester.

His Great and Good Reign.

David I. was one of Scotland's greatest, as well as one of her best kings. He labored to promote the welfare of his subjects at home, and firmly upheld the honor and renown of Scotland abroad. He steadily promoted the civilization of Scotland, introduced many foreign manners and customs, and induced many Norman barons to settle in his kingdom and granted them estates. He was a warm friend of the commons, and promoted the growth of the Scottish towns, conferring many important privileges upon them. He was always accessible to the poorest of his subjects, patiently listened to their complaints, and promptly redressed their grievances.

Holyrood and Edinburgh.

David I. founded Holyrood palace, and made Edinburgh the Scottish capital. He founded many abbeys, and also the bishoprics of Dunblane, Brechin, Aberdeen, Ross, Caithness and Glasgow. He also made many reforms in the government of the Church in Scotland. During his reign Scotland made wonderful progress in civilization, wealth and fertility. His last years were rendered sad by the death of his only son, Prince Henry, who was greatly beloved by the Scottish nation. David I. died in 1153, after a reign of twenty-nine years.

Reforms and Civilization.

Malcolm IV.

Malcolm IV., the eldest son of Prince Henry, became King of Scotland upon his illustrious grandfather's death. He was less than twelve years of age at his accession, but the principle of hereditary succession had gained such a foothold in Scotland that his accession was generally acquiesced in. When he was nineteen years old a rebellion broke out in Galloway, but was suppressed, and that district was reduced to direct dependence on the Scottish crown. Several years afterward the Lord of Argyle revolted against the Scottish king, but was slain by treachery, and his estates were annexed to the royal territories. But Henry II. of England forced Malcolm IV. to relinquish the sovereignty of the northern English counties which David I. had held. Malcolm IV. was then invested with the Honor of Huntingdon, as a fief of the English crown.

Revolts Suppressed.

William the Lion.

Malcolm IV. died in 1165, and was succeeded on the Scottish throne by his brother William the Lion, whose reign is the longest in Scottish history, lasting almost half a century (A. D. 1165–1214). At the beginning of his reign William the Lion demanded that Henry II. of England should restore to him the earldom of Northumberland, which his father had held and which his brother had lost. Henry II. refused to grant it, whereupon William the Lion invaded England while the English king was absent in France, and overran a large part of the northern English counties; but the Scottish king was taken prisoner with several of his chief nobles near Alnwick Castle in the summer of

His Invasion of England.

Defeat and Captivity

1174, and was thereupon sent into captivity to the Castle of Falaise, in Normandy.

His Release and Vassalage to Henry II. of England.

At the end of the year William the Lion was released, upon agreeing to hold the Scottish crown as a vassal of the English monarch, and requiring his nobles and clergy to do homage to the same king. The chief strongholds of Scotland were garrisoned with English troops, and William the Lion and his nobles and clergy did homage to Henry II. of England at York as their feudal lord. This humiliating treaty remained in force until the death of Henry II. in 1189.

His Relations with Richard the Lion-hearted and John of England.

Richard the Lion-hearted, the next King of England, released William the Lion from his obligations and restored the Scottish castles upon the payment of a ransom of ten thousand marks; but he refused to restore the earldom of Northumberland to the Scottish king. When John became King of England, William the Lion did such homage as the Scottish kings had formerly paid to the King of England for their fiefs in that kingdom. The two kings thoroughly distrusted each other; and for several years William the Lion was under the necessity of keeping a considerable force on the border to protect Berwick, the largest trading town of Scotland, from King John's efforts to ruin its commerce.

Claims of the Archbishop of York.

In 1176 the Archbishop of York again claimed ecclesiastical jurisdiction over Scotland. The Scottish clergy appealed to Pope Clement III., who confirmed their claim of independence in 1188, and declared Scotland subject to the Holy See only in matters of religion. During

Revolt in Galloway.

the captivity of William the Lion a formidable revolt had broken out in Galloway, but had been suppressed by his nephew Roland, who was confirmed in the possession of the district.

Alexander II.

William the Lion died at Stirling in 1214, and was succeeded on the throne of Scotland by his only son, Alexander II. Alexander II. took part in the civil war in England between King John and his barons, espousing the cause of the barons, in the hope of recovering the earldom of Northumberland. The Scottish king received the homage of

Aids the English Barons against King John.

the barons of the North of England, united his forces with theirs, and marched to Dover to welcome and do homage to Prince Louis of France, whom the English barons had invited to come to England and assume the English crown. The struggle was ended by King John's death in 1216 and the acceptance of his son Henry III. as their king by the English barons.

His Homage to Henry III. of England.

Alexander II. did homage to Henry III. of England in 1217, and was invested with the Honor of Huntingdon. In 1221 the Scottish king married the Princess Joanna, the sister of the King of England. This marriage was followed by a peace of almost a century between Scotland and England. Alexander II. consented to renounce his claim to the earldom of Northumberland in return for a grant of the lands

of Penrith and Tynedale. The relations between the Scottish and English kings were so cordial that when Henry III. of England went to France he left the border under the protection of Alexander II. In 1222 the two kings appointed a joint commission to settle the boundary between Scotland and England. The result of their labors was the boundary line which still divides the two countries. A wide district on both sides was left as a neutral ground.

Present Boundary Established.

Alexander II. died in 1249, while engaged in an expedition against the Hebrides, and was succeeded as King of Scotland by his son, ALEXANDER III., who was then only eight years of age. Alexander III. was solemnly crowned at Scone, and was married to the Princess Margaret, the daughter of King Henry III. of England, at York, on Christmas day, A. D. 1251. On this occasion Alexander III. did homage to the English monarch for the lands which he held in England. Henry III. demanded that the Scottish king should also do homage for Scotland, but Alexander III. evaded this by declaring that he must consult the Scottish lords on a question of such importance.

Alexander III.

His Relations with Henry III. of England.

In 1278 Alexander III. went to Westminster to do homage to Edward I. of England. Edward I. renewed the claim of Henry III. to the homage of the King of Scotland, but Alexander III. refused to acknowledge the English king's claim. Edward I. forbore to enforce his claim then.

With Edward I. of England.

In 1262 Hakon IV., King of Norway, with a large fleet, attempted the conquest of the Orkneys and the Hebrides, after which he ravaged the western coast of Scotland. The Norwegians gained no permanent advantages in this expedition; but in 1281 Margaret, the eldest daughter of the Scottish king, was married to Erik, the heir to the crown of Norway. Margaret died two years afterward, leaving a daughter also named Margaret. Alexander, the only son of the Scottish king, died several months afterward; whereupon the infant Margaret, the *Maid of Norway*, became the heir to the crown of Scotland. Alexander III. was killed by a fall from his horse in 1286.

Norwegian Invasion of Scotland.

The Maid of Norway.

The second period of Scottish history ended with the death of Alexander III. This period commenced with the dethronement of Donald Bane, the last Celtic King of Scotland, almost two centuries before; and during that period the boundary of Scotland had been extended by the annexation of Argyle and of the Isles, while the two dependencies of Galloway and Lothian had been more closely drawn to the Scottish kingdom, though they yet remained separate and distinct.

End of Scotland's Second Period.

During this period the influence of England, though peaceable, had been stronger in Scotland than it was ever to be afterward. English laws and English customs had been introduced into Scotland, and had taken the place of the old Celtic usages in many cases. The old Celtic

English Influence in Scotland.

The Sheriffs of Scotland.

Mærs had been removed to give place to the sheriffs of the Scottish crown; but, as Scotland was not divided into counties, the sheriffs in Scotland were not, like those in England, the reeves of the already existing shires, being officers placed over certain districts by the king. These districts, or sheriffdoms, became the Scottish counties of later times.

Feudalism and Norman Baronage in Scotland.

Feudalism, after the Norman model, with all its burdensome exactions and oppressions, had been introduced into Scotland, and had taken firmer root in that kingdom than it ever did in England. The native chiefs of Scotland had been displaced by foreign nobles, and thus a purely Norman baronage had come into possession of the Scottish lands, whether occupied by a Celtic or an Anglo-Saxon peasantry. In some cases the Norman landlords founded feudal families afterward known under Celtic names, as the Normans took the names which the Celts had given to the lands and adopted them as their own.

Social Progress in Scotland.

The long peace between Scotland and England, which remained unbroken for almost a century, had been marked by great social progress in Scotland. The large proportion of land now under tillage proves that agriculture must have thriven during this troubled time. Roads and bridges were numerous and in good repair, while the trading towns had made great progress in wealth and power. Hitherto no town had taken its place distinctly as the capital of Scotland. Perth, or St. John's Town, had some claim to the first rank because of its connection with Scone; but the Scottish king held his court or his assize indifferently at any of the great royal burghs.

Perth and the Royal Burghs.

Freedom of the Burghers.

These burghs were of great importance in the Scottish kingdom; and, as the burgesses of the royal burghs were all vassals of the Scottish crown, they acted as some sort of a check upon the increasing power of the nobles. The burghers possessed the right to govern themselves by their own laws, and were divided into two groups. Those north of the Frith of Forth were united by a league like the Hanse towns of Continental Europe, and were known by the same name; while those in Lothian, represented by the four leading towns among them—Edinburgh, Roxburgh, Berwick and Stirling—held their *Court of the Four Burghs*, still represented by the *Convention of Royal Burghs*, which convenes once a year at Edinburgh. Thus one institution of mediæval, or feudal Scotland still remains as a relic and remnant of the glory of a former age.

Court of the Four Burghs.

Berwick and Inverness.

None of the Scottish towns were in any way behind the cities of Continental Europe. Berwick, the richest and the greatest, was said to rival London. Inverness was celebrated for shipbuilding. A ship built there aroused the envy and wonder of the French nobles of that time.

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WALLACE MONUMENT AND STIRLING BATTLEFIELD

STIRLING CASTLE

Subsequent Misery and Adversity.

But this condition of things was ended by the death of Alexander III.; and the long period of war and misery that ensued did much to wipe out every vestige of the high degree of civilization and prosperity that had been reached in that golden age of Scottish history.

Regency for the Maid of Norway.

Within the month following the death of Alexander III. the Scottish estates assembled at Scone and appointed a council of six regents to govern the Scottish kingdom for Margaret, the Maid of Norway, who was then only three years of age, and who had succeeded her grandfather on the throne of Scotland.

Robert Bruce of Annandale.

Robert Bruce, a Norman baron, whose ancestors had settled in Annandale in the preceding century, attempted to seize the Scottish crown by force. He was the son of Isabella, the second daughter of David, Earl of Huntingdon, the brother of William the Lion. He appealed to Edward I. of England, as lord-paramount of Scotland, to sustain his claim.

Royal Marriage and Union of English and Scottish Crowns.

The Scottish estates opposed Robert Bruce; and a treaty was negotiated with the King of England for the marriage of Margaret, the Maid of Norway, with the son and heir of the English sovereign. In this treaty it was stipulated that Scotland should remain a distinct and separate kingdom, and that England should respect her independence after the union of the English and Scottish crowns by the proposed marriage. The death of Margaret in 1290, while on her way from Norway to Scotland, broke off the arrangement.

John Baliol and Robert Bruce.

The dynasty founded by William the Lion ended with Margaret's death. Several claimants for the crown of Scotland now appeared, who based their claims upon their descent from David, Earl of Huntingdon. The two principal ones were Robert Bruce and John Baliol, the latter of whom was the grandson of David's daughter Margaret.

Decision of Edward I. of England.

Both appealed to Edward I. of England, who decided in favor of Baliol, on condition that he should do homage to the English monarch for his crown; and near the end of 1292 Baliol was crowned at Scone as King John of Scotland.

Baliol and the Scottish Parliament.

The English king had just conquered Wales, and ardently desired to unite the whole island of Great Britain under the English dominion. Immediately after his coronation John Baliol summoned the Scottish estates, now for the first time called a Parliament, to meet at Scone. Baliol was a weak, incompetent sovereign, and his subjects generally considered him a mere instrument of the King of England.

Scottish Appeals to Edward I.

Roger Bartholomew, a burgess of Berwick, dissatisfied with an unfavorable decision of a Scottish court, appealed to Edward I. of England, who ordered a hearing of the case before an English council at Newcastle, thus directly violating his treaty with Scotland, but he forced the vassal King of Scotland to submit to it. Several months afterward Macduff, the granduncle of the Earl of Fife, appealed to

Baliol's Defiance.

the King of England from a decision of the estates concerning the lands of the families of Bruce and Douglas. Edward I. summoned Baliol to appear before the English Parliament, but even the submissive King of Scotland revolted against so abject a surrender of his country's freedom.

His Alliance with France and Norway.

The English monarch thereupon declared Baliol a contumacious vassal, and ordered him to surrender three of the principal fortresses of Scotland into his hands until he should give satisfaction. Baliol replied by entering into an alliance with King Philip the Fair of France and King Erik II. of Norway against Edward I. of England. Baliol was heartily supported in this action by the nobles and people of Scotland. Thenceforth until the Reformation Scotland was the faithful ally of France. Immediately after the conclusion of this alliance a Scottish army crossed the border and ravaged the northern counties of England.

Scottish Raid into England.

English Victories in Scotland.

Having thus the pretext for the conquest of Scotland, for which he had long been watching, Edward I. immediately led a large English army into Scotland and inflicted a punishment upon the citizens of Berwick. He then defeated the Scots at Dunbar, A. D. 1296, besieged and took Edinburgh Castle, seized the crown jewels of Scotland, captured Stirling and Perth, and took the Stone of Destiny from Scone and sent it to Westminster Abbey, where it still remains.

Capture of the Stone of Destiny.

First English Conquest of Scotland.

As the Scots had regarded that sacred stone as in some way connected with their country's destiny they considered its capture a national misfortune. The English king marched as far north as Elgin and returned to Berwick in 1296, having thoroughly subdued Scotland. John Baliol was compelled to surrender his crown, and was sent a prisoner to England. He was afterward permitted to retire to his estate in the county of Picardy, in France, where he died in 1315.

Baliol's Captivity and Exile.

Scotland under English Rule.

The Scottish nobles were forced to swear fealty to Edward I. of England, who treated Scotland as a confiscated fief. All the Scottish castles were garrisoned with English troops. The Scots were not allowed to hold any important offices, and were treated with great severity. Scotland was governed by English officials, as an integral portion of the English kingdom. The Earl of Warrenne and Surrey was appointed guardian of Scotland, and administered the government in the English king's name. The Highlanders, who had not been directly molested by Edward I., paid no attention to the change in the government of Scotland, and the Norman nobles quietly accepted it; but English tyranny soon produced a Scottish revolt.

William Wallace, a gentleman of Clydesdale, killed an English officer who had inflicted a grievous injury upon him, and escaped to the woods, calling on his countrymen to assist him to liberate Scotland from

English rule, A. D. 1297. With a band of devoted followers, he cut to pieces the English garrison at Lanark, and killed Haselrig, the newly appointed Sheriff of Ayr. After other successes, he attacked Scone, where Warrenne's justiciary, Ormesby, was holding his court. Ormesby escaped, but Wallace captured many prisoners and much booty. Wallace next attacked Glasgow, compelling Anthony Beck, Bishop of Durham, to take flight to England. All the English officials, except those in the fortified places, now abandoned their posts and fled into England.

Revolt and Successes of William Wallace.

Wallace, whose successes had again aroused the spirit of Scotland, was now joined by Lord William Douglas and Robert Bruce, Earl of Carrick, a grandson of the Robert Bruce who had been John Baliol's competitor for the Scottish crown; but the Scottish nobles looked upon Wallace's movement with coldness, and when an English army under Lord Percy marched into Scotland in the summer of 1297 they renewed their allegiance to Edward I.

Lord William Douglas and Robert Bruce.

Lord Percy soon retired to England, believing the Scottish outbreak over; but Wallace again took the field at the head of many Lowlanders. He soon made himself master of the fortresses north of the Tay. Earl Warrenne marched against him with forty thousand men, but was utterly routed at Stirling, September 11, 1297; Cressingham, the English treasurer of Scotland, being among the slain, and his body being flayed by the Scots, who made saddles and girths of the skin. Warrenne retreated into England, and Wallace crossed the border and ravaged the northern counties of England with great cruelty, carrying much plunder with him to Scotland. All the strongholds south of the Frith of Forth came into the possession of the Scots, and Wallace was made guardian of Scotland.

Wallace's Continued Successes.

His Victory at Stirling.

His Raid into England.

Edward I., who had been absent in Flanders, now returned to England, led almost a hundred thousand men into Scotland, and defeated Wallace at Falkirk in 1298. Wallace now resigned the guardianship of Scotland, and the English monarch returned to Carlisle. Edward I. reduced the Northern Lowlands to submission in 1303. Edward I. granted an amnesty to all the Scottish leaders except Wallace, who was required to submit unconditionally to the English king's clemency. Wallace, who had been absent in Continental Europe since the battle of Falkirk, now returned to Scotland; but was soon afterward betrayed to Edward I. by his trusted friend, Sir John Monteith, and was taken to London, where he was hanged as a traitor. The Scots have always honored him as a martyr to their cause, and his memory is still cherished as the greatest of Scottish heroes.

His Defeat at Falkirk.

Second English Conquest of Scotland.

Wallace's Captivity and Execution in England.

The English were now supreme in Scotland, and that kingdom was governed by a lieutenant of the King of England, aided by a council

Scotland again under English Rule.

of barons and bishops. Scotland was allowed a representation by ten deputies in the English Parliament, and English officials were appointed in every department of the Scottish government. Edward I. sought to conciliate the Scots to English rule by just treatment, but he was unable to suppress the natural longings of the Scots for national independence.

Scottish Revolt under Robert Bruce.

Scottish discontent soon produced another revolt. Robert Bruce, Earl of Carrick, who had taken part in Wallace's insurrections, had been pardoned by the English monarch and received into his favor. Bruce intended to renew the effort for his country's liberation, and when Edward I. discovered his plotting for that purpose he was obliged to save himself by flight from the English court.

His Murder of John Comyn.

Bruce hastened to Scotland, and murdered his rival, John Comyn of Badenoch, who opposed his plans, in an interview in the Grey Friars' Church at Dumfries, being aided in the act by Sir Roger Kirkpatrick. By this act, combining murder and sacrilege, Bruce aroused the vengeance of the English king and the Church. But it made him the legitimate heir of the Scottish throne, thus arousing the sympathy and support of his countrymen, who were very restless under the English yoke. Bruce at once put forward his claims, and was solemnly crowned King of Scotland at Scone, March 27, 1306, with the royal title of Robert I.

Crowned King of Scotland.

Bruce Outlawed and Excommunicated.

Edward I. made vigorous preparations to crush this new Scottish outbreak, and made Aymer de Valence governor of Scotland. King Robert Bruce was declared a traitor, and was excommunicated by a special bull from the Pope, while all who had aided him were punished with great severity as fast as they fell into the power of the English.

Execution of Scottish Nobles.

Nigel Bruce, Robert's brother; Christopher Seton, his brother-in-law; and three other Scottish nobles, were executed. The execution of these leaders contributed much to alienate the nobles of Scotland from the English dominion, and to induce them to second the efforts of the Scottish people.

Death of Edward I.

Edward I. led an army of a hundred thousand men northward for a third invasion of Scotland, but died at Burgh-on-the-Sands, July 7, 1307. His son and successor, Edward II., disregarded his father's dying injunction to prosecute the war for the subjugation of Scotland, and abandoned the struggle and disbanded his army, thus giving Scotland several years to prepare for the decisive blow for her deliverance.

Retreat of Edward II.

Robert Bruce's Desperate Fortunes.

As King Robert I. was not acknowledged by the whole Scottish nation, his prospects were so desperate for several years that he was a wanderer and an outlaw. During this time he maintained an irregular warfare with the English, in which he very much increased his reputation for good generalship and personal bravery. His principal ene-

mies were the Earl of Buchan and Macdougal of Lorn, who had been gained over to the English interests.

Robert Bruce and the Spider.

At length Bruce was obliged to seek refuge in the island of Rachrin, off the northern coast of Ireland. According to a tradition, he had almost resolved to give up the struggle in Scotland. As he lay in bed one morning in the hut in which he had found shelter he observed a spider vainly endeavoring to throw its web across from beam to beam in the roof above him. The insect failed in six attempts. Said Bruce to himself: "Six times have I failed in my efforts against the English." He watched with renewed interest to see if the spider would repeat the effort. Said he: "If it does, I will take it as an encouragement to try again." To his delight, the spider made another effort and succeeded.

His Renewed Warfare.

Greatly encouraged, Bruce returned to Scotland, joined some of his followers in the isle of Arran, and passed over to the mainland. He had a small force, and was confronted with many perils. He bore his trials manfully, and infused his patience and hopefulness into his followers, whose numbers increased slowly; and he finally defeated his old foe, the Earl of Buchan, near Inverary; after which he ravaged the lands of the Earl of Buchan with fire and sword.

His Successes.

Bruce's cause steadily gained ground, and the Scottish clergy soon acknowledged him as their king, thus virtually relieving him of the ban of excommunication. This was a great gain for him. The Scottish strongholds came into his possession one by one, until finally Stirling was the only post in Scotland remaining in the possession of the English, and even that place was so hard pressed that the governor agreed to surrender it if not relieved by the day of the Feast of St. John the Baptist, in 1314. Edward II. of England led an army of a hundred thousand men into Scotland to the relief of Stirling, but was utterly routed by thirty thousand Scots under Bruce at Bannockburn, within sight of Stirling, June 24, 1314. The English king and his army fled to their own country, and the independence of Scotland was virtually secured.

Battle of Bannockburn.

"Scots who have with Wallace bled,
Scots whom Bruce has often led,
Welcome to your gory bed,
Or to glorious victory."

The "Black Douglas."

During this period Lord James Douglas, the son of the Douglas who had sustained Wallace, achieved so many victories over the English that his name became a terror to them. He was called the "Black Douglas," from his swarthy complexion and his black hair, to distinguish him from the "Red Douglas."

Edward Bruce's Invasion of Ireland.

Although the battle of Bannockburn virtually established the independence of Scotland, England still refused to acknowledge that independence, and the struggle went on, producing much suffering to the borders of both kingdoms. Edward Bruce, Robert's brother, invaded Ireland and tried to wrest that dependency from the crown of England. With Robert's assistance, Edward Bruce was crowned King of Ireland at Carrickfergus, but was defeated at Athenree, August 10, 1316, and was finally defeated and killed at Dundalk in 1318, thus ending this effort to liberate Ireland from English rule, King Robert Bruce having in the meantime returned to Scotland.

Battles of Dundalk and Athenree.

Recovery of Berwick.

In the meantime war between the English and the Scots went on along the border. The Scots recovered Berwick and held it against all the efforts of the English to recapture it. In 1328 the long struggle was ended by the Treaty of Northampton, by which England formally acknowledged the independence of Scotland, and Kings Robert I. and Edward II. pledged themselves to be faithful allies and to refrain from instigating each other's subjects to rebellion. Edward's sister Joan was betrothed to Robert's infant son, David Bruce.

Treaty of Northampton.

Scottish Consolidation and Nationality.

The Treaty of Northampton did away with all former Scottish submissions to England, and Lothian and Strathclyde became wholly independent of England and integral portions of Scotland. The struggle for Scottish independence tended to the consolidation of all the hitherto discordant races in the Scottish kingdom, and thus to develop a feeling of nationality among the Scottish people, making them a united and compact nation.

Alliance of Scotland and France.

A less fortunate result of the struggle was the deep-rooted hatred of England and everything English that had grown up among all classes of Scots—a feeling which drove the Scots into an alliance with France, which shaped the future destiny of Scotland. King Robert I. entered into a treaty with France by which he bound himself to invade England whenever France should declare war against that kingdom.

The Scottish Parliament and Succession.

In 1318 the Scottish Parliament settled the succession to the Scottish crown—first, on the direct male heirs, in the order of seniority; next, on the direct female heirs; and, in case of the failure of both the direct lines, on the next of kin. This Parliament likewise forbade the holders of Scottish estates residing in England from taking any produce or revenues of those lands out of the Scottish kingdom. This was done in order to force the landholders of Scotland to be Scots only. The Scottish Parliament of 1326 admitted representatives form the burghs, and acknowledged the Third Estate, or the commons, as an essential part of the Scottish Parliament.

Third, Estate, or Commons.

David II. Crowned and Anointed.

King Robert I. died at Cardross in 1329, and was greatly mourned by the Scottish nation. His only son, David II., then only eight years

old, succeeded him on the throne of Scotland. David II. was crowned at Scone, and was likewise anointed, the latter ceremony being performed in Scotland for the first time, it being considered the exclusive right of independent sovereigns. Lord Randolph, a nephew of Robert Bruce, was made regent of Scotland during the young king's minority.

Lord Randolph, Regent.

In the early part of the reign of David II. the English barons who had been dispossessed of their estates in Scotland, by the law passed by the Scottish Parliament of 1318, invaded Scotland, with the avowed intention of placing Edward Baliol, son of John Baliol, on the throne of Scotland. In this emergency Lord Randolph died; whereupon Donald, Earl of Mar, also a nephew of Robert Bruce, was made regent of Scotland.

English Invasion.

Regency of Donald, Earl of Mar.

The English invaders landed on the coast of Fife and defeated the Scottish army under the regent Donald, who was killed in the battle. The English victors then occupied Perth, and crowned Edward Baliol King of Scotland at Scone, September 24, 1332. Edward Baliol acknowledged himself a vassal of King Edward III. of England.

His Defeat and Death.

Edward Baliol.

The Scots were so incensed at this English invasion that they made war on the English border counties, thus giving Edward III. of England a pretext for invading Scotland. He besieged Berwick in the spring of 1333. Archibald Douglas, the new regent of Scotland, marched to relieve the beleaguered town, but was defeated by the English king in the great battle of Halidon Hill, and Berwick was forced to capitulate to Edward III. Edward Baliol ceded Berwick to the English, and surrendered to them all the Scottish fortresses south of the Frith of Forth.

Scottish Border Raids.

Battle of Halidon Hill.

The war between Scotland and England continued three years longer with varying success. At length, when Edward III. of England was occupied with his war with France, the national party in Scotland, under Robert Stuart, the high steward of the Scottish kingdom, who became regent in 1338, recovered the Scottish fortresses which Edward Baliol had surrendered to the English king, and drove Edward Baliol from Scotland in 1341. David Bruce, and his wife, Joan of England, who had been sent to France to insure their safety, were immediately brought back to Scotland; and David at once resumed the government of his kingdom. A truce was concluded with England, and a period of peace ensued for five years, broken only by raids along the border.

Scottish Successes under Robert Stuart.

David Bruce's Restoration.

In 1346, when Edward III. of England was engaged in the siege of Calais, King David Bruce broke the truce in the interest of France by invading England; but he was defeated and taken prisoner in the battle of Neville's Cross, near Durham, October 10, 1346. He remained in captivity in England for eleven years, during which time Scotland was governed by the former regent, Robert Stuart, or the

His Invasion of England.

Battle of Neville's Cross.

David Bruce's Captivity and Ransom.

Steward. The Scots recovered Berwick, but again lost it. Upon returning from France, Edward III. of England marched with his army into Scotland as far as the Frith of Forth, the Scots retreating before him and devastating the country. David Bruce was released in 1357 upon the payment of a ransom of a hundred thousand marks.

Robert II., First of the Stuart Dynasty, A. D. 1370–1390.

Upon the death of David Bruce in 1370, without children, Robert Stuart, or the Steward, became King Robert II. of Scotland; and thenceforth the Stuart dynasty occupied the Scottish throne. The office of Steward was hereditary, having descended from Walter Fitz-Alan, upon whom David I. had conferred it; and from this the family took the name of Stewart, or Stuart, by which it is known in Scottish history. The accession of Robert II. was undisputed.

English Invasion and Retreat.

The truce with England expired in 1385, whereupon Robert II. renewed the war with that kingdom. King Charles VI. of France sent two thousand troops, with arms and money, to his Scottish ally. Richard II. of England invaded Scotland and destroyed Melrose Abbey, while the Scots and their French allies ravaged the northern counties of England with fire and sword. Upon the English king's retreat from Scotland the French troops returned to their own country. A few years afterward the war between the Scots and the English was renewed on the border; and in August, 1388, the Scottish Earl of Douglas was slain in the hard-fought battle of Otterburn, in Northumberland—a combat so celebrated in the famous ballad of *Chevy Chase*. Peace was made between Scotland and England in 1389.

Battle of Otterburn.

Robert III., A. D. 1390–1406.

King Robert II. died in 1390, and was succeeded on the throne of Scotland by his eldest son, Robert III. Robert III. was weak in mind and body, and the government of Scotland fell under the control of his brothers, the Duke of Albany and the Earl of Buchan. The Duke of Albany was the real ruler. Scotland was in a condition of anarchy, and lawless violence distracted the whole kingdom. The Scottish nobles and chieftains fought out their quarrels, and some of their combats assumed the proportion of battles. They also robbed and maltreated the peasants and burghers.

Regency of the Duke of Albany.

War with England.

In 1400 a border war broke out with England, in consequence of the English claim to the crown of Scotland by Henry IV. of England; and Archibald, Earl of Douglas, was defeated and taken prisoner in the battle of Homildon Hill, in 1402, by the English under the Earl of Northumberland and his son Henry Percy, Hotspur; but peace was made soon afterward.

Battle of Homildon Hill.

Prince James's Captivity in England.

The Duke of Albany caused the king's eldest son, the heir to the Scottish throne, to be starved in a dungeon; and in 1406 the king's remaining son, James, Earl of Carrick, then the heir to the crown, was captured by an English cruiser, while on board a Scottish vessel sailing

A FORAY ON THE BORDER

From the Painting by C. Steffeck

for France, where the prince was being sent to be educated. Although a state of peace then existed between Scotland and England, King Henry IV. retained the Scottish prince a prisoner in England; and for eighteen years Prince James remained in captivity, two years in the Tower and sixteen in Windsor Castle. King Robert III. died of grief three days after hearing of his son's capture, A. D. 1406.

James I., A. D. 1406–1436.

The Duke of Albany as regent at once proclaimed JAMES I. King of Scotland, although he was a captive in England, and administered the Scottish government in his name. Peace was nominally maintained with England, but the border war still continued, and the Scots recovered many of the frontier fortresses. They retook Jedburgh, and destroyed it for the purpose of preventing the English from occupying it in future invasions of Scotland.

Duke of Albany.

Border War.

Highland Raiders Defeated by Lowlanders.

In 1411 the Highlanders, under Donald, Lord of the Isles, burst into the Lowlands north of the Frith of Forth, for the purpose of ravaging that part of the kingdom; but they were defeated by the Lowlanders, under Alexander Stewart, Earl of Mar, at Harlow, in Aberdeenshire, July 24, 1411, thus delivering Scotland from a terrible danger.

Anarchy and Disorders in Scotland.

The Duke of Albany died in 1419, and was succeeded in the regency and in his dukedom by his son. The Scottish kingdom was so distracted with anarchy that the regent exercised but nominal power. The real remedy for the disorders which afflicted Scotland was to place the king, who was still a captive in England, on the throne. Douglas and some of the other Scottish nobles obtained the release of James I., who returned to Scotland in 1424, when the Scots paid a ransom of forty thousand pounds, to defray the expense of his maintenance and education during his captivity of eighteen years in England.

Ransom and Release of James I.

Regency of the Young Duke of Albany.

During his captivity James I. married the Lady Joanna Beaufort, daughter of the Duke of Somerset, and she came with him to Scotland. James I. was well aware that the new regent, the young Duke of Albany, and his partisans had sought to prevent his release, because they were reluctant to relinquish the government of Scotland; but he did not manifest any sign of displeasure for eight months. He then arrested the Duke of Albany, his two sons, and twenty-six other Scottish noblemen, during the session of the Scottish Parliament at Perth. The Duke of Albany and his sons were tried before a jury of twenty-one peers, over which the king presided; and they were convicted of treason, and were executed at Stirling.

His Arrest, Trial and Execution.

Execution of Highland Chiefs.

James I. then summoned the chiefs of the Highland clans and of the Hebrides to a Parliament at Inverness in 1427. They were instantly arrested upon their arrival, and were imprisoned. Three of them were hanged immediately, and several others afterward. Others were detained in prison, and only a few were permitted to return to their es-

tates. James I. hoped to strike terror into these barbarous chiefs by his stern proceedings, but in this he failed.

Defeat and Submission of other Highland Chiefs.

Alexander, Lord of the Isles, was of the few who were allowed to return home. He at once rallied his vassals, marched to Inverness, and destroyed that town. The king hastened to the Highlands and defeated Alexander in Lochaber. The chieftain surrendered unconditionally to the king, and was imprisoned in Tantalion Castle. His kinsman, Donald Balloch, called the Highland clans to arms and defeated the royal troops. The king thereupon led a formidable army into the Highlands, resolved to crush the power of the clans forever. Perceiving their weakness, the Highland chieftains submitted and did homage to the king.

Assassination of James I.

James I. then proceeded to deprive some of the most powerful and dangerous nobles of their estates, which he conferred upon others: thus arousing the vengeance of the nobles, who formed a conspiracy against him and assassinated him in the monastery of the Black Friars at Perth, on Christmas, in 1436.

Great and Good Reign of James I.

The reign of James I. was one of the most celebrated in Scottish history. The Scottish Parliaments during his reign enacted many laws for the advancement of the best interests of the Scottish people. The king caused a collection of the statutes of his kingdom to be made, in which he set aside all laws that were obsolete and retained only those that were then in force. He established a definite standard of weights and measures, and caused the coinage of the kingdom to be regulated upon a scale which made it equal to the money of England in fineness and weight. He created the office of treasurer; caused the acts of the Scottish Parliament to be published in the language of the Scottish people; and instituted schools of archery for the purpose of training the bowmen of Scotland to be as efficient as those of England. James I. was a learned man himself and also a patron of learning. He was the famous poet-king of Scotland, and such of his poems as still remain show him to have possessed real genius.

His Beneficent Acts.

James II., A. D. 1436–1460.

James II. was only eight years of age when he succeeded his murdered father as King of Scotland in 1436. After he had been proclaimed king a short struggle for the guardianship of the king's person ensued between the queen-mother and two others, William Crichton, the Chancellor and Governor of Edinburgh Castle, and Archibald Livingstone, Governor of Stirling Castle. The struggle was ended by the queen-mother's withdrawal and by an agreement between Crichton and Livingstone to share between them the power which the possession of the king's person gave them.

Quarrels of His Guardians.

Archibald, Earl of Douglas, the most powerful noble of Scotland at that time, possessed Galloway, Annandale and other estates in Scotland,

and also the duchy of Touraine in France. He had been made lieutenant-governor of Scotland, and might easily have obtained possession of all the power in the kingdom had he so desired. He died in 1439, and his son William, a youth of seventeen, succeeded to his estates. This new Earl of Douglas maintained an almost royal state, and was accused of many acts of violence and oppression. The king's guardians resolved to get rid of him, and invited him and his brother David to visit James II. at Edinburgh. When they arrived there they were seized by the king's guardians, and were beheaded in the castle-yard after a mock trial.

Archibald, Earl of Douglas, and His Two Sons.

The Latter's Execution.

The estates of the Douglas family were divided; a portion being assigned with the title to James, the granduncle of William and David, the male heir; while their sister Margaret obtained Galloway. At the death of James, his son William married his cousin Margaret of Galloway, thus reuniting the Douglas estates. William then proceeded to court, and there contrived to get most of the power of the government into his possession. He openly defied the king's commands; and, as he was able to put a force of five thousand of his own vassals into the field, the king dared not punish him. When King James II. once ordered William to release a prisoner whom he held unlawfully, William caused the man to be beheaded, and then notified the king that he could have the body.

The Douglas Estates.

William, Earl of Douglas.

His Bold Defiance of James II.

When James II., upon coming of age, assumed the government of Scotland, he resolved to get rid of William Douglas, whom he invited to Stirling, receiving him cordially. The king then urged the earl to break off his "bonds," or alliances with the Highland chiefs, which menaced the power of the Scottish crown. As Douglas refused, the king stabbed him. The wounded earl fell, and was killed with a pole-ax by Sir Patrick Gray, one of the king's attendants.

His Murder by James II.

James Douglas, the brother and heir of the murdered Earl William, cast off his allegiance to King James II. and took up arms against him, being joined by the Earls of Ross and Crawford. As the king was too weak to defeat the rebels in the field he undertook to break up their union by diplomacy, in which he was so successful that he defeated James Douglas in the battle of Arkinholm in 1454 and forced him to take refuge in England.

Revolt of James Douglas.

His Defeat and Flight.

The Scottish Parliament passed an act of forfeiture against the fugitive Douglas, and Galloway and certain other estates of the exiled earl were declared inalienable possessions of the Scottish crown. Most of the remainder of the Douglas estates was conferred upon the Earl of Angus, the head of the Red Douglases, the rivals of the Black Douglases. Some of the former possessions of the Black Douglases were bestowed upon Sir James Hamilton. These vigorous measures hum-

Forfeiture of the Douglas Estates.

bled the proud family of Douglas, and firmly established the royal power in Scotland.

James II. and the Wars of the Roses in England.

James II. took part in the Wars of the Roses in England on the side of the House of Lancaster, and sought to take advantage of the occasion to recover from the English the towns which they still held in Scotland. He besieged Roxburgh, and was killed by the bursting of a cannon while directing the operations, A. D. 1460. After his death Roxburgh was taken and destroyed. This was the first siege in which the Scots used artillery.

His Accidental Death.

James III., A. D. 1460–1488.

James III. was only eight years of age at the time of his father's death. The Bishop of St. Andrews governed the Scottish kingdom for six years as regent. At his death, Lord Boyd obtained the regency and possession of the king's person. In 1469 James III. was married to Margaret, daughter of King Christian I. of Denmark and Norway. As security for her dowry, the Orkney and Shetland Isles were placed by Norway in the care of Scotland. As the dowry was never paid, the islands remained in the possession of the Scots and became a part of the Scottish kingdom.

Regency of the Bishop of St. Andrews and Lord Boyd.

Orkneys and Shetlands.

Royal Seizure of the Boyd Estates.

Duke of Albany Imprisoned.

James III. now turned upon the Boyds and punished them for their seizure of his person by executing the regent's younger son and confiscating the family estates, which were now declared the inalienable possessions of the Scottish crown. Lord Boyd and his eldest son, the Earl of Arran, escaped to England. The king's brother, the Duke of Albany, being suspected of conspiring against James III., was arrested and imprisoned in Edinburgh Castle. He escaped to France, whence he went to England.

Plot against James III.

His War with England.

King Edward IV. of England agreed to aid him to dethrone James III., and the Douglases and the Lord of the Isles pledged themselves to support the English monarch. James III. declared war against England, placed himself at the head of a large army, and advanced as far as the Lauder. There the Scottish nobles, under the leadership of the Earl of Angus, resolving to get rid of certain of the king's favorites who had incurred their hostility, seized them and hanged them over Lauder bridge, in spite of the king's entreaties. This ended the expedition, and the nobles returned in triumph to Edinburgh, with the king a virtual prisoner in their possession, and themselves as the real masters of the Scottish kingdom, A. D. 1482.

Execution of the King's Favorites.

Treason of the Duke of Albany.

Revolt against James III.

The Duke of Albany returned to Scotland soon afterward and obtained the release of his brother, King James III. The two brothers lived together amicably for a while, until the Duke of Albany went back to England. Before he left Scotland he showed his treasonable design by placing Dunbar Castle in the possession of the English. The king's unpopularity continued increasing; and the Lowland nobles conspired

against him, raised a large army, and proclaimed his son king in his stead. James III. was defeated in the battle of Sauchieburn, and fled from the field, being thrown from his horse during his flight and carried to a mill at Bannockburn, where he was assassinated by some unknown person, A. D. 1488.

His Defeat and Assassination.

The assassination of James III. left the government of Scotland in the hands of the rebellious nobles; and the murdered king's son, JAMES IV., ascended the Scottish throne, at the age of sixteen years. For the next few years the victorious nobles governed the Scottish kingdom for him. When James IV. became of age and assumed the government he soon gave evidence of being an able and vigorous ruler. He maintained a splendid court, and promoted the civilization of his subjects. He constantly sought to curb the power of the Lowland nobles and the Highland chiefs, and to increase the royal authority. This aroused the animosity of some of his nobles, and they laid plans to make him a prisoner.

James IV A. D. 1488–1513.

His Wise and Able Rule.

Plot against Him.

Henry VII. of England, who was prevented by the condition of affairs in his own kingdom from making open war against Scotland, secretly encouraged the conspiracies of the Scottish nobles against their king. Upon discovering this, James IV. retaliated by espousing the cause of Perkin Warbeck, whom he welcomed at his court as Richard, Duke of York, the son of King Edward IV. The Scottish king gave Warbeck his relative, Lady Catharine Gordon, in marriage, and led an army in his behalf into England. James IV. finally grew tired of Warbeck, sent him off to Ireland, and renewed the truce with Henry VII. In 1502 James IV. married Margaret, the eldest daughter of Henry VII.

James IV. and Perkin Warbeck.

For the purpose of curbing the power of the Highlanders and the Lord of the Isles, James IV. placed royal garrisons in the castles and fortresses of that portion of his kingdom and erected other strongholds. He was unable to carry the plan as far as he desired, and thus resorted to the policy of using the feuds of the Highland chieftains as a means of destroying them. The Earl of Huntly, the head of the Gordon family, was made Sheriff of Inverness, Ross and Caithness, on condition that he erected and maintained a castle at Inverness. The Earl of Argyle, the head of the Campbells, was assigned the task of maintaining order in the Hebrides. James IV. also endeavored to divide the islands into sheriffdoms.

James IV. and the Highlanders.

The Gordons and the Campbells.

The Highland clans rallied under Donald Dhu, an illegitimate descendant of the last Lord of the Isles, to resist the king's measures. After a struggle of three years, Donald Dhu was brought a prisoner to Edinburgh, and was deprived of his Lordship of the Isles, his dominions being confiscated to the Scottish crown, A. D. 1504.

Overthrow of Donald Dhu, Lord of the Isles.

Invasion of England by James IV.

In 1513 James IV. unwisely renewed the old alliance between Scotland and France, and declared war against Henry VIII. of England. He led a splendid army across the border into England, but committed so many blunders that he wholly destroyed every prospect of success, and was defeated and slain by the English army under the Earl of Surrey in the battle of Flodden Field, September 9, 1513. The flower of the Scottish nobility perished with their king on this fatal field, and all Scotland was plunged into mourning.

His Defeat and Death in the Battle of Flodden Field.

His Prosperous Reign.

James IV. was one of the most popular of the Scottish kings, and his reign was one of the most prosperous that Scotland had ever known. Trade improved rapidly, and the exports of Scotland to other countries vastly increased. In the reign of James IV. the art of printing was introduced into Scotland, and the first printing-press was set up by Walter Chapman under the king's patronage.

Introduction of Printing.

CHAPTER XXVIII.

FEUDAL SOUTHERN EUROPE.

SECTION I.—MEDIÆVAL ITALIAN REPUBLICS AND DUCHIES (A. D. 843–1547).

Carlovingian Italy.

After the Partition Treaty of Verdun, in 843, Italy remained under the weak Carlovingian dynasty a-half century. In 962 A. D. the Emperor Otho the Great of Germany annexed Italy to the Holy Roman Empire of Germany. For three centuries Italy was distracted by the civil wars between the Guelfs and the Ghibellines—the former the adherents of the Popes, and the latter the supporters of the Emperors of Germany. During the whole period of the Middle Ages, Italy was the seat of European civilization, wealth, culture and refinement. The most important states of mediæval Italy were the papal state of Rome; the duchy of Milan; the duchy of Savoy; the kingdom of Naples and Sicily; and the famous republics of Venice, Genoa, Pisa and Florence—noted for their extensive commerce and maritime power, and for their political freedom and high state of civilization, thus recalling the glories of the ancient Grecian republics.

Italy as a Part of the Germano-Roman Empire.

Mediæval Italian States.

Italian Republics.

During the Middle Ages a number of small republics arose in Italy, the most prominent of which were Venice, Genoa, Pisa and Florence. The most famous of these Italian republics was Venice, which was founded in the year 452 A. D., by the Veneti, a people of Northern Italy, who fled in terror from their homes during the frightful ravages in Italy by Attila and his Hunnic followers. The fugitive Veneti took refuge among the small islands at the head of the Adriatic sea, and there founded a settlement called Venezia, or Venice, which eventually became a great commercial and maritime republic.

Republic of Venice.

Venetian Commerce and Naval Power.

Works of Venice.

Venice—which dated its existence from the time of Attila the Hun's invasion of Italy—excelled other Italian republics in the extent of its commerce and its naval power; and was for centuries the mistress of the Mediterranean, and controlled Europe's commerce with the East. The magnificent works of Venice—such as the cathedral of St. Mark, the palace of the Doge, the place of St. Mark, and the bridge of the

Rialto—made this city of islands, with bridges and canals instead of streets, the admiration and wonder of the world.

The First Doge.

For more than two centuries Venice was a simple republic; but in the year 697 A. D. its form of government was changed by the election of a Doge, or Duke, who was vested with almost absolute power.

The Rialto.

In the beginning of the ninth century the central island, Rialto, was connected with the other islands by bridges; and this city became a great commercial power.

St. Mark.

In the ninth century the Venetians adopted St. Mark as their patron saint, having brought, as it is said, his body from Alexandria, in Egypt, to Venice (A. D. 829).

Growth of Venice.

During the seventh, eighth and ninth centuries Venice greatly increased in wealth, commerce and naval power; and its territories were enlarged by the annexation of Dalmatia and other provinces. Later Venice acquired possession of many rich towns in Lombardy, and also of Crete, Cyprus, the Peloponnesus, and the little islands of the Archipelago (the ancient Ægean sea), so famous in ancient times.

Venice in the Crusades.

In the First Crusade the Venetians aided Godfrey of Bouillon with a fleet of two hundred vessels; and during the period of those Holy Wars Venice was the great commercial center and emporium of the trade between the nations of Europe and those of the East.

"Wedding the Adriatic."

In the twelfth century the ceremony of "wedding the Adriatic" was instituted, the Pope presenting the Doge of Venice with a ring for the purpose. The ceremony was annually performed with great pomp, and consisted in casting a ring into the Adriatic by the Doge, to indicate that the sea was subject to Venice as a bride is to her husband. While casting the ring into the sea the Doge exclaimed: "We betroth thee, O Sea, in sign of our lawful and perpetual dominion!"

Marco Polo.

In the latter part of the thirteenth century Marco Polo, the great Venetian traveler, visited China and the far East, bringing home a knowledge of the countries of Eastern Asia.

Dissension and Corruption.

Venice—at first a perfect democracy, celebrated for its political freedom—at length became torn by internal dissensions; and the introduction of luxury and wealth brought their attendant evils—political corruption and the loss of civic virtue.

The Doges and the Council of Ten.

In the fourteenth century the government became an aristocracy under the *Doges* (Dukes) and the *Council of Ten*, which, with its secret spies and its dungeons, was enabled to exercise a most unmitigated tyranny, and to suppress every effort to restore the democratic constitution.

Height of Venetian Greatness.

At the commencement of the fifteenth century Venice attained the highest pitch of greatness and prosperity, and was for more than a century the chief commercial and maritime power of the world. Venice did very important service to all Christian Europe by checking the

CATHEDRAL OF ST. MARK, VENICE

naval power of the Ottoman Turks in the Mediterranean sea; but her long maritime wars finally exhausted her resources. The Turks.

The discovery of a sea-passage to India by way of the Cape of Good Hope in 1497 sealed the fate of Venice, and her commercial and maritime glory, in a great measure, departed from her; but for several centuries longer Venice continued formidable, and her fleets contended successfully against the Ottoman Turks, who endeavored to secure the control of the Mediterranean sea. Decline of Venice

When, at the beginning of the sixteenth century, Venice attempted to extend her territorial possessions in Italy, the powerful *League of Cambray* was formed against her by Pope Julius II., King Ferdinand the Catholic of Spain, King Louis XII. of France, and the Emperor Maximilian I. of Germany (A. D. 1508). The Venetians soon succeeded in winning the Pope and the King of Spain to their interest, and so contrived to dissolve the league; and the French, who had threatened the independence of Venice, were soon expelled from Italy. Wars with the Turks. League of Cambray against Venice.

The republic of Genoa—also a flourishing commercial and maritime power—was the great rival of Venice for the control of the Eastern commerce; but in the many wars between the two republics Genoa had to yield the supremacy to her great rival. The contests between the democracy and aristocracy and political corruption led to the decline of Genoa, and the republic was conquered by the French early in the sixteenth century, but its independence was reëstablished in 1528 by the great Genoese admiral, Andrea Doria, "the Father of his Country and the Restorer of its Liberties." In 1547 Fiesco attempted to deprive the family of Doria of the office of Doge, but the conspiracy failed by the unexpected death of Fiesco. Pisa—a flourishing city of Tuscany, celebrated for its leaning tower—was also a prosperous commercial republic, but was conquered by Genoa, and finally by Florence in 1406. Republic of Genoa. Dissension and Corruption. Andrea Doria. Fiesco. Republic of Pisa.

Florence—the most flourishing republic of Middle Italy and the seat of mediæval Italian literature—rivalled ancient Athens in the freedom of her political institutions, and in her patronage of literature and the fine arts. The great poets Dante and Petrarch and the great novelist Boccaccio flourished at Florence. The commercial spirit of her citizens made Florence a wealthy and powerful republic. The Florentines wove in silk and wool, made jewelry, and were the leading bankers of Europe. The gold *florin*—first coined in 1252—became the standard currency of Europe. Republic of Florence. Dante, Petrarch and Boccaccio. The Florin.

The inland republic of Florence has left a deeper impress upon the Italian character and upon the art and literature of the world than Venice or Genoa. The Florentine government was far more democratic than that of Venice, and rested upon the industries of the citizens. Art and Literature. Democracy.

Magistrates and Council of State.

Chief magistrates could be chosen from members of the *Arts*, or trades' unions, which resembled the Guilds of England and the Netherlands. These officers were chosen every two months, and the Council of State every four months; so that the whole mass of citizens were qualified for office, and were elevated in turn to public trust. No magistrate received any reward for his services. During the Guelfic supremacy Florence conquered the ports of Pisa and Leghorn and half of Tuscany; while the wealth of her bankers, merchants and woolen manufacturers established her commercial fame in Europe.

Florentine Conquests, Wealth and Commerce.

Florence under the Medici.

Florence—at first a model democracy—in the fifteenth century passed under the absolute rule of the illustrious family of the Medici; and under Cosmo de Medici (1428–1464) and his renowned grandson, Lorenzo the Magnificent (1472–1492), Florence enjoyed a high degree of prosperity, as the seat of European civilization, culture and refinement.

Cosmo de Medici.

Cosmo de Medici, who had been a prosperous merchant and ruled Florence so wisely and well for thirty-six years, simply exercised the power of a citizen among equals; and his power appeared to rest on the esteem and affection of his countrymen, though it was supported by the control which a rich money-lender exercised over needy borrowers. Cosmo de Medici was a man of lofty mind and patriotic spirit, and without assuming either rank or title he governed Florence with almost unlimited power, and rendered the republic flourishing and powerful by successful wars abroad and by encouragement of the arts and sciences at home, so that he was justly called the "Father of his Country"—a title which he bears in history.

Lorenzo the Magnificent.

Lorenzo the Magnificent trod the same path as his renowned grandfather, and made his name illustrious by rendering Florence the seat of every art and science and a university for all Europe. His court was ornamented with artists, poets and writers; and learned men from Constantinople, fleeing from the sword of the conquering Turks, taught the Greek language and literature in Florence. Under his rule the arts of sculpture, painting and music commenced unfolding their choicest blossoms.

Greatness of the Medici.

The power of Cosmo de Medici and Lorenzo the Magnificent resembled that of Pisistratus in Athens. They so well succeeded in winning the affection of their fellow citizens by their benevolence and their kindness to the poor, and by their friendly affability toward the illustrious, that their power was securely established. The public entertainments which they gave rendered life in Florence a perpetual scene of gay and brilliant festivity. Their policy exalted the intellectual fame of Florence at the expense of her freedom, and their influence among the Italian states was frequently exerted on the side of despotism, as in the

case of Milan. Still Florence largely owes her title of "Mother of Modern Art" to their liberal and enlightened tastes.

Savonarola, the Reformer.

His Martyrdom.

After Lorenzo's death the earnest discourses of the Dominican monk and reformer, Savonarola, induced the Florentines to drive out the Medici and to restore the democratic republic; but the "bold prophet of Florence" was excommunicated by Pope Alexander VI., and, at the instigation of the clergy, was tried, convicted, and burned to death as a disturber of the Church and a corrupter of the people. The Medici returned and recovered their power, and after being again banished were restored by the forcible intervention of Pope Clement VII. and the Emperor Charles V., who besieged and took Florence, and placed Alexander de Medici as Duke over the conquered republic. Alexander's tyranny caused his assassination, but Florence remained under the Medici until 1737. Among the great men who ornamented the court of the Medici were the artist Michael Angelo and the historian and statesman Machiavelli.

Alexander de Medici.

Michael Angelo and Machiavelli.

Duchy of Milan and the Lombard League.

As we have seen, after many bloody wars with Frederick Barbarossa, Milan and the Lombard League won their independence of the German Emperor by the battle of Lignano in 1176 and the Peace of Constance in 1183. The Duchy of Milan, under the renowned families of Visconti and Sforza, afterward became powerful in Northern Italy.

Milan under the Visconti and Sforza.

Milan, which was ruled by the family of Visconti, in the process of time acquired nearly the whole of Lombardy. The ruler of Milan and its territory received the title of Duke from the Emperor of Germany. On the death of the last Milanese duke of the family of Visconti, in 1450, the government of the duchy was bestowed on Francisco Sforza.

French Conquest of Milan.

In 1500 the Duchy of Milan was subdued by Louis XII., King of France, and the Milanese duke, Louis Moro, was kept a prisoner for ten years; but the French were finally driven away and Moro was restored to his dukedom. In 1515 King Francis I. of France conquered Milan by defeating the Swiss and Milanese in the battle of Marignano, "the Battle of the Giants"; but in 1525 Francis I. was defeated and taken prisoner by the Spaniards, who governed Milan thereafter for two centuries, until 1714, after which the House of Austria held possession of the duchy until 1866.

Milan under Spain and Austria.

Duchy of Savoy.

The western part of Northern Italy fell gradually under the control of the powerful Counts of Savoy, who eventually erected their territory into the *Duchy of Savoy*, which lost many of its territories in subsequent wars with Burgundy, Milan and France; and Geneva was lost in the sixteenth century; but the Dukes of Savoy eventually conquered Sardinia and Genoa, and in 1720 the Duchy of Savoy became the Kingdom of Sardinia; and the Savoyard dynasty now occupies the throne of the Kingdom of Italy, formed in 1861.

Kingdom of Sardinia.

SECTION II.—PAPAL ROME, AND KINGDOM OF NAPLES AND SICILY (A. D. 752–1521).

Rome under the Popes.

From the time that Pepin the Little bestowed Rome and its adjacent territory on Pope Adrian I., Rome was governed by the Popes, with several interruptions, until 1870. During the seventy-two years' residence of the Popes at Avignon, in France (1305–1377), Rome was a

Violence and Lawlessness.

prey to the violence of domestic factions, and suffered greatly from the lawlessness of the nobles. Out of these intestine disorders and quarrels of the families of Orsini and Colonna arose the fiery orator, Cola di

Cola di Rienzi and the New Roman Republic.

Rienzi, the "Last of the Tribunes," who was imbued with the spirit of the ancient Roman republicans, and who sought to restore Rome to its former glory and preëminence. Having gained the support of the Roman people by his fiery addresses, Rienzi was made a Tribune of the People; and he seized the supreme power in Rome in 1347, expelled the lawless nobles and established a new *Roman Republic;* but he soon lost

His Fall and Exile.

his popularity by his impolicy in loading the Roman people with the most oppressive taxes, and, after a brief existence of seven months, his

His Assassination.

government was overthrown and he was driven into exile. Rienzi afterwards returned to Rome, and was assassinated during a tumult in the city, in 1354.

Popes Nicholas V and Pius II.

After the return of the Popes to Rome, a few Popes—such as Nicholas V., the founder of the Vatican library, and Pius II. (Æneas Silvius), a clever and versatile writer—endeavored to reform Church and

Alexander VI.

State, and patronized literature and science: but Alexander VI., who bought his election, was the worst Pope that ever occupied the Chair of St. Peter, causing the poisoning of his political rivals and wealthy cardinals to secure their estates, and his death was caused by accidentally drinking poisoned wine intended for another. Alexander's successor,

Julius II.

Julius II. (1503–1513), was a warlike Pope, and enlarged his dominions by conquering Bologna, Ancona, Ferrara and other towns. Leo

Leo X.

X. (1513–1521)—the accomplished son of Lorenzo de Medici of Florence—was a great patron of men of genius: and the great artist

Raphael.

Raphæl, "the Divine Painter," flourished at his court. One of his

St. Peter's Church.

great objects was the completion of St. Peter's Church at Rome. The Popes now ranked more as Italian princes than as Heads of the Christian Church.

Naples and Sicily under the Guiscards.

The foundations of the Kingdom of Naples and Sicily were laid by the Norman chief, Robert Guiscard, who, in 1060, conquered Southern Italy, and whose nephew, Roger II., became the first King of Naples and Sicily. After the extinction of the Norman dynasty upon the death of William II., the grandson of Roger II., in 1186, the Kingdom

Under the Hohenstaufens.

of Naples and Sicily fell to the German House of Hohenstaufen by the marriage of the Emperor Henry VI. with the Norman heiress; but during the contest between the Guelfs and Ghibellines the Hohenstaufens were overthrown, Manfred being defeated and killed in the battle of Benevento, in 1266, by his rival, Charles of Anjou, the brother of St. Louis, King of France; Pope Urban IV. having bestowed Naples and Sicily, as papal fiefs, upon the House of Anjou; and Manfred's brother and successor, Conradine, being defeated, taken prisoner and beheaded. The House of Anjou then ruled Naples and Sicily, but the tyranny of Charles of Anjou led to the massacre of eight thousand French in Sicily on Easter day, 1282—the *Sicilian Vespers*—by which the House of Anjou lost Sicily, which then fell to the Kings of Aragon.

Under the House of Anjou.

Sicilian Vespers.

Anjou Dynasty.

Charles I. of Anjou, at his death in 1285, was succeeded by his son Charles II. Charles II. died in 1309 and was succeeded by his son Robert the Wise, who died in 1343 and was succeeded by his granddaughter Joanna I., who was then only sixteen years old and already married to her cousin, Andrew of Hungary. The boorish manners of Andrew and his Hungarian attendants shocked Joanna's elegant court, while his assumed claim to the crown of Naples in his own right alarmed her counselors. Andrew was murdered in 1345 by his wife's adherents. His brother, King Louis the Great of Hungary, avenged his death by invading Naples, while Joanna I. fled for refuge to the States of the Church.

Joanna I. and Andrew of Hungary.

Charles of Durazzo.

In revenge for the aid which Joanna I. had given to the election of Clement V. as Antipope, Pope Urban VI. bestowed the Kingdom of Naples upon Charles of Durazzo, nephew of King Louis the Great of Hungary, and crowned him at Rome in 1381. Charles had a hereditary claim to Naples, as the old Angevin line was to expire with Joanna I.; but the childless queen, exasperated at the disposal of her kingdom before her death, adopted Louis of Anjou, uncle of King Charles VI. of France, as her heir.

Louis of Anjou.

Pope Clement V. at Avignon hastened to crown Louis of Anjou as King of Naples, and to assign him a new "Kingdom of Adria" from the States of the Church. But Charles of Durazzo was first in the field, and took Joanna I. prisoner and caused her to be murdered—a long cherished revenge on the part of King Louis the Great of Hungary for the murder of his brother Andrew. In order to enforce his pretensions to Naples, the Duke of Anjou seized the treasures of the French kingdom immediately upon his brother's death; but his great preparations ended only in failure and humiliation. Most of his army fell victims to the plague, and he himself died near Bari in 1384. French claims upon Naples caused more than a century of war without effecting any permanent conquest.

Murder of Joanna I.

Joanna II.

Houses of Anjou and Aragon.

Joanna II., daughter of Charles of Durazzo, called to her assistance Alfonso V. of Aragon and Sicily, who received the title of Duke of Calabria as heir-expectant of the Italian crown. But Joanna II. changed her mind and adopted Louis III. of Anjou as her heir. Louis III. died in 1434, and Joanna II. in 1435. Count Réné of Anjou, brother of Louis III., had been named in Joanna's will, but he was captured and detained in France by a rival claimant to the duchy of Lorraine; and the Neapolitan nobles again called in Alfonso V. of Aragon.

Réné of Anjou and Alfonso V. of Aragon.

The forces of Genoa and Milan fought for Réné of Anjou, and gained a most bloody victory over the Aragonian fleet in the Mediterranean, taking Alfonso V., his brother and many of their attendant nobles prisoners; but the King of Aragon finally triumphed, and the amiable and accomplished Réné of Anjou turned his attention to the more congenial pursuits of poetry and painting. Two of Réné's children strongly contrasted with their father in energy of character—Margaret, the wife of Henry VI. of England, who so long and valiantly maintained the Lancastrian cause against the House of York: and John, Duke of Calabria, who displayed the same genius and resolution in the pursuit of his lost inheritance.

Réné's Children.

Naples under France and Spain.

Thus the Kingdom of Naples also came under the dominion of the Kings of Aragon, but a strong party in the kingdom adhered to the French claimant of the Neapolitan throne, thus distracting the kingdom until the end of the fifteenth century. In 1493 King Charles VIII. of France conquered and lost Naples, and only effected his safe retreat to France by his victory at Fornovo in 1494. In 1500 his successor, King Louis XII. of France, conquered Naples, but was driven away in 1504 by the Spaniards, who retained possession of Naples for more than two centuries.

SECTION III.—CHRISTIAN AND MOORISH KINGDOMS IN SPAIN (A. D. 718–1492).

Wars of the Moors and Christians.

For a period of eight centuries, the Saracens and Moors, after establishing themselves in the Spanish peninsula, were engaged in constant wars with the Christian Spaniards, who, in the course of time, erected the powerful Christian kingdoms of Asturias and Leon, Aragon, Castile, Navarre, and Portugal. The wars with the Moors produced a spirit of romantic chivalry and love of freedom among the Christian Spaniards.

Kingdom of Asturias. Pelayo.

As we have seen, the *Kingdom of Asturias* was founded by the Christian Spaniards under the Gothic prince Pelayo, who fled into the mountains in the North of Spain at the time of the Saracen conquest of

Spain in 711. This Christian kingdom flourished in spite of all the Saracen efforts to conquer it. It was at first confined to the district of Ovieda. Constant war was waged against the Saracens and Moors, and in the course of time the Christians were enabled to extend their territories southward. ALFONSO I., THE CATHOLIC—the third prince of Asturias and Pelayo's son-in-law—ascended the throne in 739, conquered and annexed Galicia and parts of Leon and Castile, and assumed the title of King of Asturias. ALFONSO III., who became King of Asturias in 866, conquered all of Leon, and removed his capital to the city of Leon; and during his reign, in A. D. 873, *Navarre* became independent of Asturias, and eventually grew into a powerful kingdom.

Alfonso the Catholic.

Alfonso III.

Kingdom of Navarre.

Castile, which had been subject to Leon, recovered its independence about A. D. 982, and was erected into a kingdom early in the next century. In 1037 FERDINAND I., THE GREAT, of Castile, united the Kingdom of Leon with Castile, which was thenceforth the strongest power in Spain. Ferdinand the Great died in 1065, assigning Castile to his eldest son, SANCHO II., and Asturias and Leon to his other son, ALFONSO VI., THE VALIANT. There was almost constant war between these two brothers; and on the death of Sancho II., in 1071, Alfonso the Valiant obtained the crown of Castile, thus reuniting the two kingdoms; but at his death, in 1109, his dominions were divided among his children. Alfonso the Valiant recovered Toledo, the old capital of Spain, from the Moors, whom he came near driving from Spain. He destroyed the old Moorish kingdom of Toledo, made that city his capital, and named the territory which he had thus acquired *New Castile*. In 1095 Alfonso the Valiant erected *Portugal* into a separate earldom, and in 1139 that country renounced its allegiance to Leon and Castile and became an independent kingdom.

Kingdom of Castile.

Ferdinand the Great.

Sancho II.

Alfonso the Valiant.

New Castile.

Kingdom of Portugal.

Aragon, hitherto a part of the Kingdom of Navarre, became an independent kingdom under RAMIRO I., in 1035, and rapidly grew in strength and importance during the next century. In 1118 ALFONSO I., THE WARRIOR, took Saragossa, the principal city in the North-east of Spain, from the Moors.

Kingdom of Aragon.

Alfonso the Warrior.

In the meantime all the Christion kingdoms in the North of Spain had been pressing the Moors farther southward. The growing weakness of the Khalifate of Cordova enabled the Christians to drive back the Moors with comparative ease; and the condition of affairs that followed the fall of the Khalifate gave the Christians an opportunity to vastly increase their territories—an opportunity of which they readily availed themselves.

Progress of the Christian Kingdoms.

During this period flourished the chivalrous Cid, Rodrigo Diaz, the great hero of Spanish history, whose career belongs to the realms of romance rather than to actual history. This legendary warrior is rep-

The Cid.

resented as having struck terror into the hearts of the Moors by his numerous victories; and it is said that having been killed in an engagement, in 1099, he was set on his steed at the head of his troops, and that when the Moors beheld him thus leading his warlike hosts they were seized with superstitious awe and fled in consternation, so that the Cid won a victory even in death.

The Moorish and Christian Kingdoms.

Gradually the Christians pushed the Moors southward and made themselves masters of Spain. Towards the middle of the twelfth century the Spanish peninsula contained the Moorish kingdoms of Cordova and Granada and the Christian kingdoms of Aragon, Navarre, Castile, Leon, and Portugal. The Christian kingdoms were generally divided against each other; but the Moors, though divided among themselves, were firmly united against the Christians, and maintained their hold upon Andalusia with the aid of recruits from their brethren in Africa.

Moorish Dynasties of the Almoravides and the Almohades.

Near the end of the eleventh century the Moorish sect of the Almoravides, who had established their dynasty in Morocco, invaded Spain, conquered the Moorish kingdom of Seville, and speedily reduced the other Moorish territories in Spain under their dominion. Near the latter part of the twelfth century the dynasty of the Almoravides was overthrown in Africa by the Almohades, who reduced Moorish Spain to subjection. The dissensions among the Christian kingdoms in the Spanish peninsula enabled the dynasty of the Almohades to recover some of the territory that the Moors had lost.

Battle of Navas de Tolosa.

The death of Yacub Ben Yussef, the greatest of the Almohade Khalifs, in 1198, relieved the Christians of Spain of a formidable enemy. The Christian kingdoms laid aside their quarrels, and their united armies broke the power of the Moors by a great victory in the battle of the Navas de Tolosa, in the Sierra Morena, in 1212; after which

Moorish Decline.

the Moorish power in Spain steadily declined; but the final overthrow of the Moslems was delayed by the rise of the Moorish kingdom of Granada and by wars among the Christian kingdoms.

Moorish Kingdom of Granada.

The Moorish kingdom of *Granada* was founded in 1238 by Mohammed Ben Alhamar, a great and warlike sovereign, who collected in his new realm most of his Moorish countrymen who had been steadily driven southward by the advancing arms of the Christian kingdoms. The Kingdom of Granada remained prosperous and powerful for two and a-half centuries, and was inhabited by a numerous population.

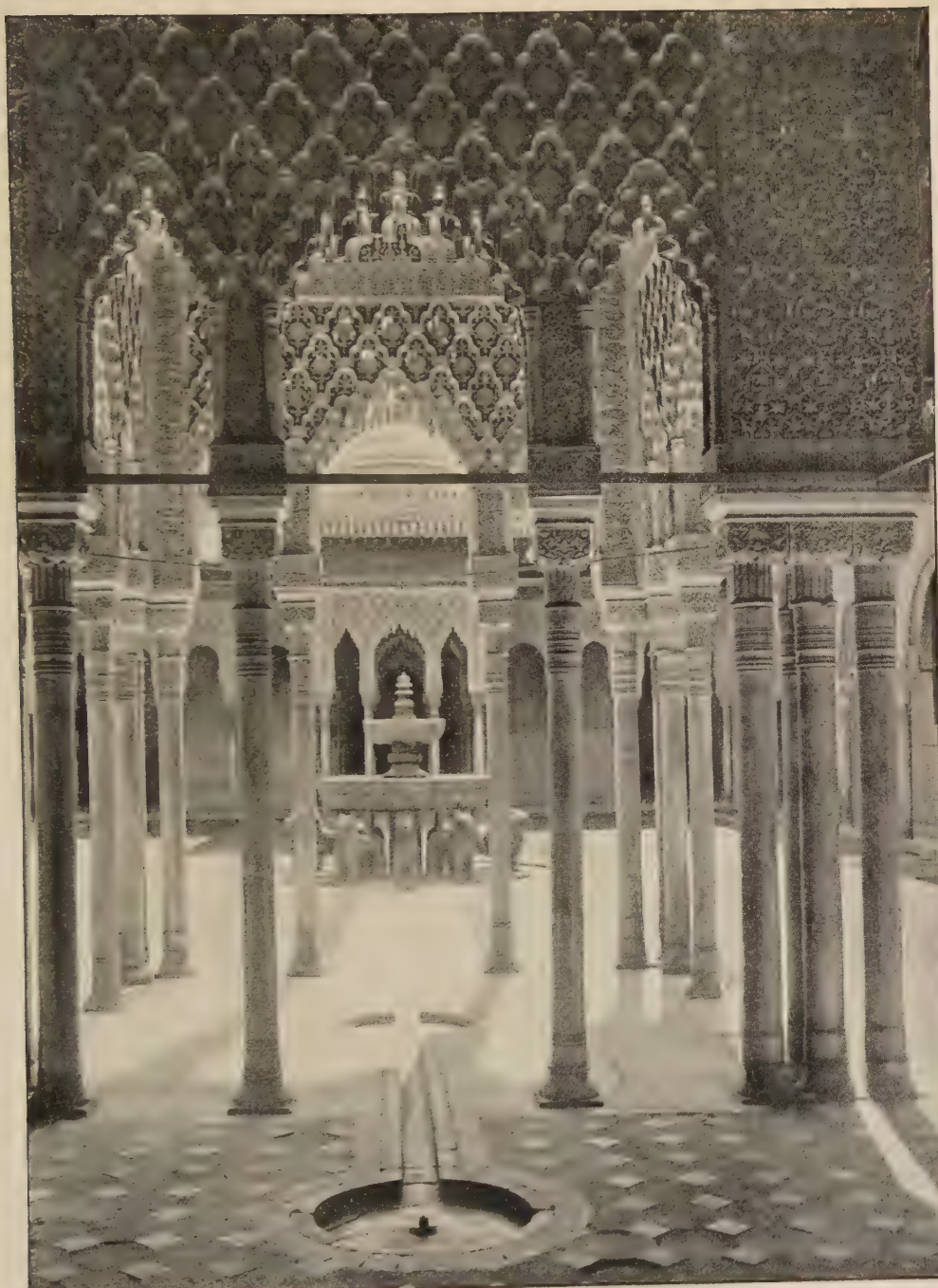
The Alhambra.

This Moorish kingdom became celebrated for its culture and refinement, of which the beautiful castle of the *Alhambra* is a permanent monument.

Art and Science.

Art and science flourished, and the kingdom was adorned with many noble and useful public works.

Every Moorish town was divided into wards, with an inspector over each, patrols guarding the streets at night, and the gates of the cities



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THE COURT OF LIONS IN THE ALHAMBRA

being closed at a certain hour of the evening. Courts of justice were held every day by an impartial sovereign. Charity was practiced, the poor being well provided for, and the sick well cared for. Every Moor was a soldier. A regular standing army was kept on pay, and each soldier had a lot of land on the frontier large enough to maintain himself, his family and his horse. These little farms served as a barrier against the Christian enemy, more effectual than walls, as each soldier fought to protect his own family and hearthstone.

Moorish Civilization.

Thus secured externally, Granada soon became as renowned as Cordova had been for agriculture, commerce, arts, manufactures, especially silk, and for wealth and industry. Prizes were awarded to stimulate all the mechanical arts, and especially to the best weavers of silk and growers of wool. Warehouses, hospitals, almshouses, markets with fixed prices, schools, colleges and good inns were seen on every hand. Besides the famous Alhambra, the Moorish capital, Granada, was also beautified with baths, fountains, delightful public walks, gardens and every convenience, all paid for from the king's gold and silver mines.

Granada's Fame, Wealth and Civilization.

The wars between the Moors and the Christians had the greatest influence upon the history and character of the Spanish nation. These struggles produced a love of war and a chivalrous turn of mind, and caused the Christian Spaniards to take delight in contests and arms, in tournaments and knightly exercises, and in romantic poetry and minstrelsy. These wars also preserved the zeal for religion, and were the foundation of that predominance of the clergy which has always been characteristic of Spain. Lastly, these wars aroused a feeling of liberty and self-reliance among the Christian Spaniards, and led to the establishment of the *Cortes*, or national legislative assembly, which possessed the law-making power in both Aragon and Castile, and which was composed of the Estates in both kingdoms—the nobles, the clergy, and deputies of the towns. The royal power in Aragon was more limited than in Castile; and the Cortes of Aragon possessed not only the power of legislation and of consenting to the levying of taxes, but the king was obliged to consult it in the choice of his council. The *Justitia*, an independent chief justice, decided quarrels between the king and the Cortes.

Chivalric Influence of the Moorish-Christian Wars.

The Cortes.

Royal Power.

The Justitia.

Ferdinand III., the Saint, who became King of Castile in 1217, and who died in 1252, permanently united the crowns of Castile and Leon in 1230, and extended his dominions southward at the expense of the Moors, recovering a large part of Spain from them, including the cities of Seville and Cordova. The famous Alfonso X., the Wise, the son and successor of Ferdinand the Saint, reigned from 1252 to 1284. He occupied himself with astronomy and astrology, with

Ferdinand the Saint.

Alfonso the Wise

His Love of Learning.

music and poetry, enlarged the University of Salamanca, encouraged the development of the Spanish language, and had works prepared on history and jurisprudence; but he lacked in the practical wisdom of life. He was elected King of Germany by one faction in that country, but he never visited his new dominions. To gain the shadow of the imperial crown he loaded his Castilian subjects with oppressive taxes, and plunged the kingdom into confusion by his extravagance and by debasing the coinage.

His Election as King of Germany.

Alfonso XI.

Alfonso XI., who reigned over the united Kingdom of Castile and Leon from 1324 to 1350, defeated the Moors on the river Salado, and took from them the strongly fortified town of Algeciras, in Andalusia. To defray the expenses of the war with the Moors, the Castilian Cortes introduced the tax called *alcavala*, which was levied upon all movable and immovable property every time it was sold or exchanged, and which was extremely detrimental to commerce. This impost has remained in Spain to the present day.

Victories over the Moors.

The Tax Alcavala.

Pedro the Cruel.

Pedro the Cruel, the son and successor of Alfonso XI., reigned from 1350 to 1369. His cruelties made him odious to his subjects; while his murder of his wife, Blanche of Bourbon, drew the hostility of the French upon him. At length his half-brother, Henry of Trastamara, took up arms against him, but was driven from the kingdom. Henry fled to the French court, and solicited the aid of King Charles the Wise of France. The French king sent his great general, Du Guesclin, with an army to aid Henry of Trastamara; and Pedro the Cruel was driven from his kingdom, whereupon Henry became King of Castile and Leon. Pedro the Cruel fled to Bordeaux and obtained the aid of Edward the Black Prince, the famous English warrior, who led an army into Castile, defeated Henry of Trastamara and the French under Du Guesclin at Navarette, in April, 1367, and restored Pedro the Cruel to the throne of Castile. Pedro had promised to pay the expenses of the war, but when he recovered his throne he broke his promise, and left the Black Prince to bear the burden alone, thus alienating his ally. The next year the King of France sent Du Guesclin into Spain a second time; and Pedro the Cruel was again driven from the Castilian throne, and was soon afterward slain by Henry of Trastamara, who was formally acknowledged King of Castile and Leon.

His Overthrow by Henry of Trastamara and the French.

Battle of Navarette.

Pedro's Second Overthrow and Death.

John II.

During the long minority and reign of John II. (1406–1454) the Kingdom of Castile and Leon was ruled by the Constable Alvaro de Luna, the most powerful noble of the kingdom, as regent. His administration was so oppressive that the nobles, headed by King John II. himself, rose against him and caused him to be executed at Valladolid. Henry IV., the son and successor of John II., died in 1474; and, as he left no male heirs, his sister Isabella became Queen of Castile and

Regency and Fall of Alvaro de Luna.

Henry IV.

Leon. Isabella's marriage with Ferdinand the Catholic of Aragon in 1479 united the two kingdoms. **Isabella.**

While the united Kingdom of Castile and Leon, the largest and most powerful of the Spanish kingdoms, was extending its power and dominion, Aragon in the East and Portugal in the West of the Spanish peninsula were steadily pushing their conquests. Castile and Portugal were the Spanish kingdoms chiefly engaged in the task of redeeming the Spanish peninsula from the Moors, who, in their kingdom of Granada, protected on their northern frontier by a chain of high mountains, maintained themselves for two and a-half centuries against the attacks of the Christians, whose superiors they were in civilization, culture and refinement. **Wars of Aragon, Castile and Portugal against the Moors of Granada.**

Aragon was the only one of the Spanish kingdoms that concerned itself with European affairs at that period. By the annexation of Catalonia, in 1137, Aragon had become the third naval power in Europe, being excelled only by Venice and Genoa. The Catalans were a hardy and adventurous race, and were the best of sailors, their bravery contributing largely to the extension of the Aragonian dominions. **Aragon's Annexation of Catalonia.** **Aragon's Naval Power.**

James I., the Conqueror, who reigned over Aragon from 1213 to 1276, was the greatest of Aragonian kings. His son and successor, Pedro III., who reigned nine years (A. D. 1276–1285), married the daughter of Manfred, the Hohenstaufen King of Sicily, thus giving rise to the connection between Aragon and the Kingdoms of Naples and Sicily. **James the Conqueror.** **Pedro III.**

Alfonso V., the Wise, who became King of Aragon and Sicily in 1416, and who died in 1458, also became King of Naples in 1435, and resided chiefly in his Italian kingdom; while his brother, John II. of Aragon, governed his Spanish dominions as viceroy, and at his death in 1458 became King of Aragon, Naples and Sicily. John II. acquired the Kingdom of Navarre by marrying its queen, Blanche, but this increase of dominion occasioned many crimes. **Alfonso the Wise.** **John II.**

Charles, the son by this marriage, was the rightful heir to the crown of Navarre upon the death of his mother; but his father, jealous of his popularity, refused him the crown. Charles took refuge with his uncle Alfonso the Wise in Naples, and after Alfonso's death in 1458 he went into studious retirement in Sicily, but was recalled to Spain by false promises that he would be allowed to ascend the Navarrese throne without opposition. He died soon after his return to Spain, believed to have been poisoned by his step-mother, Joanna, the second wife of King John II. of Aragon. **Prince Charles of Navarre.**

The rightful heir to the Navarrese crown was Charles's sister Blanche; but the Kingdom of Navarre had been promised by treaty to

Blanche of Navarre and Eleanor of Foix.

the Count of Foix, who had married Eleanor, the next younger sister of Charles. Blanche was betrayed into the power of her sister, who caused her to be poisoned in 1464. The brave and freedom-loving Catalans, believing that the queen-mother Joanna, the second wife of John II., was the real author of the crimes just mentioned, refused to

Catalan Revolt.

take the oath of allegiance to their son Ferdinand; and a civil war of eleven years ensued. The Catalans were finally reduced to submission;

Ferdinand the Catholic.

and upon the death of John II., 1479, his son, FERDINAND II., THE CATHOLIC, became undisputed King of Aragon. As before remarked, Ferdinand the Catholic had married Queen Isabella of Castile and Leon in 1479, thus uniting the crowns of the two most powerful Spanish kingdoms.

SECTION IV.—RISE OF THE KINGDOM OF PORTUGAL (A. D. 1095–1580).

Henry of Burgundy, Count of Portugal.

PORTUGAL, the ancient Lusitania, had been recovered from the Moors by King Alfonso the Valiant of Castile and Leon near the end of the eleventh century. In 1095 that monarch granted the territory between the Minho and the Douro to his son-in-law, Henry of Burgundy, who assumed the title of Count of Portugal, from *Portus Cale*, the ancient name of the town of Oporto. Count Henry established his capital at Guimaraens, and extended his territories southward by several vigorous campaigns against the Moors.

Alfonso I., First King of Portugal, A. D. 1139–1185.

Count Henry died in 1112, and was succeeded by his son Alfonso Henry, who also achieved great vistories over the Moors. He defeated them in the great battle of Ourique, near the Tagus, in 1139; after which he assumed the title of ALFONSO I., King of Portugal. Thus was founded the Kingdom of Portugal, which was liberated from Castilian supremacy. The title of Alfonso I. as King of Portugal was

His Conquests.

acknowledged by Alfonso VII., Raymond, of Castile and Leon. Alfonso I. continued his wars against the Moors, and took Lisbon by storm, October 25, 1147. He extended his dominion over at least one-half of the modern Kingdom of Portugal, and laid the foundations of

The Cortes.

his country's greatness. In 1143 he convened a Cortes, or assembly of the Portuguese Estates, at Lamego, which framed the first code of laws for Portugal.

Sancho I., A. D. 1185–1211.

On the death of Alfonso I., in 1185, his son, SANCHO I., became King of Portugal. Sancho I. continued his father's wars against the Moors. He removed his capital to Coimbra, and raised Portugal to

Alfonso II, A. D. 1211–1223.

a high degree of prosperity and power. Sancho II. died in 1211, and was succeeded by his son ALFONSO II., who suffered many reverses in a war with Castile and Leon.

Sancho II., A. D. 1223–1248.

Alfonso II. died in 1223, and was succeeded by his son SANCHO II., who won several important successes over the Moors, and conquered a large part of Algarve, the extreme southern province of Portugal; after which he became involved in a quarrel with the Church. He was never very scrupulous in his dealings with the clergy, and now he seized their revenues and their property without the least compunction, at the same time appointing his favorites to the vacancies in the Church. He was deposed by the Council of Lyons in 1245, and retired to Castile, where he died in 1248.

His Quarrel with the Church and Deposition.

Alfonso III., A. D. 1248–1279.

Sancho II. was succeeded by his son, ALFONSO III., who extended Portugal to its present limits by the annexation of Algarve, the most southern province, which he had conquered from the Moors. He drew upon himself the censure of the Church by marrying a second wife while his first wife was still living. Pope Alexander IV. pronounced the second marriage invalid, but on the death of the first wife he issued a bull declaring the second marriage legitimate, also the issue resulting from this marriage.

Annexation of Algarve.

Quarrel with the Church.

Dinis, A. D. 1279–1325.

Upon the death of Alfonso III., in 1279, his son DINIS became King of Portugal. Like his predecessors, Dinis soon became involved in a quarrel with the Church, but contrived to effect a reconciliation with the Pope on terms advantageous to himself. Dinis was one of the greatest of the Kings of Portugal. He founded more than forty cities, and was a liberal friend of learning, industry and commerce. During his reign Portugal commenced that career of navigation and commercial enterprise which afterward rendered her illustrious and wealthy. He united a truly royal liberality and a truly comprehensive capacity of mind with great zeal in the administration of justice. His subjects called him the "Father of his Country"—a title which he bears in history.

His Quarrel with the Church.

His Greatness.

Alfonso the Brave, A. D. 1325–1357.

Dinis died in 1325, and was succeeded by his son, ALFONSO IV., THE BRAVE. The only important event of his reign was the war which he waged with Alfonso XI. of Castile to avenge the wrongs of his daughter, who was the Castilian king's wife.

Prince Pedro and Ines de Castro.

Pedro, the son and heir of the King of Portugal, had held guilty relations with Iñes de Castro, a lady of his court. Fearing that Pedro would attempt to marry Iñes after his first wife's death, King Alfonso the Brave caused Iñes to hold a child of Pedro over the baptismal font; thus forcing her to contract what was believed to be too close a spiritual affinity to Pedro to permit him to marry her. Pedro paid no attention to this, and after his first wife's death he privately married Iñes, January 1, 1354; she having already borne him four children. When questioned by his father, Pedro denied the marriage, but firmly refused to desert Iñes or to marry again.

Contemplated Murder of Ines de Castro.

King Alfonso the Brave feared that Pedro's infatuation for Iñes would cause him to set aside his son by his first wife, the legitimate heir, in favor of one of his children with Iñes. He consulted his courtiers, who were already jealous of the favor shown by Pedro to the Castros, and was advised to put Iñes to death. The king consented to this with reluctance. Pedro was warned of the plot by his mother and by the Archbishop of Braga, but he disregarded their warnings, because he was unable to believe that his father would even for a moment contemplate such a crime. Several months afterward, while Pedro was absent on a hunting excursion, Alfonso the Brave proceeded to the convent of St. Clair at Coimbra, where Iñes was residing, to put her to death; but he was so moved by the tears, the youth and the beauty of Iñes, and by the sight of her little ones, his own grandchildren, that he left without doing her any harm.

Murder of Ines.

After the king's departure his attendants reproached him for what they called his weakness, and procured an order from him to carry out the plan themselves. They at once returned to the convent, and murdered the unfortunate Iñes with their daggers. Soon after the departure of the assassins Pedro returned from his hunting expedition. He manifested the wildest grief and rage when he found his wife barbarously murdered. Being unable to take revenge on the persons of the assassins, as his father protected them, he took up arms and ravaged with fire and sword the provinces where their principal estates lay. The king was greatly alarmed by his son's outbreak and sought to pacify Pedro, agreeing to banish the murderers of Iñes from Portugal as the price of peace, though he refused to deliver them up to Pedro. Pedro then agreed to a reconciliation, waiting until he should have become king to take full revenge on the murderers of Iñes, and he did not have to wait long.

Prince Pedro's Grief and Revolt.

Reconciliation.

Pedro the Severe, A. D. 1357–1367.

Alfonso the Brave died in 1357, two years after the murder of Iñes, and his death is said to have been hastened by remorse for his part in that tragic deed. His son, Pedro I., the Severe, then became King of Portugal. He at once demanded of his namesake, Pedro the Cruel, King of Castile, that he should surrender the murderers of Iñes, who had taken refuge in Castile, offering to surrender certain Castilian nobles who had found an asylum in Portugal, and whom Pedro the Cruel was anxious to get into his power. The Portuguese king's offer was accepted by the King of Castile. One of the murderers of Iñes escaped, but the other two were arrested and delivered to the King of Portugal, who on his part seized the Castilian refugees and surrendered them to their king. After thus getting the assassins into his power, Pedro the Severe put them to death with horrible torments, which he helped to inflict with his own hand.

His Cruel Murder of the Assassins of Ines de Castro.

His Honors to the Dead Ines.

Pedro the Severe now caused his marriage with Iñes to be made public, and the Portuguese Cortes solemnly declared that Iñes was entitled to the honors usually paid to the wives of the Kings of Portugal. He next caused the body of his murdered wife to be disinterred and arrayed in royal robes, with crown and scepter, and seated on a magnificent throne in the Church of St. Clair, at Coimbra. He then took his stand beside the corpse, and compelled his nobles and clergy to do homage to the dead body, sternly eying each one as he approached, to see that he did not fail to fulfill a subject's duty to his queen. Pedro the Severe then buried the remains of Iñes with solemn pomp in the monastery of Alcobaça. The reign of Pedro the Severe lasted ten years. He executed the laws sternly and mercilessly, and his principal wrath was aimed at those who were guilty of the excesses that had disgraced his own youth.

His Severity.

Ferdinand I., A. D. 1367–1383.

Pedro the Severe died in 1367, and was succeeded by FERDINAND I., his son by his first wife. Ferdinand I. was cruel and licentious. He compelled one of his nobles to divorce his wife, so that he might marry her himself; and he was under this unprincipled woman's influence during his entire reign. This marriage greatly offended his subjects. Ferdinand I. did some worthy things, though his reign was infamous on the whole. He suppressed the bandits who caused much trouble in some of the Portuguese provinces. He prohibited the clergy from succeeding to landed property by testamentary bequest. He improved the government of the cities. He brought the Portuguese navy to a higher degree of efficiency, and rebuilt the walls of Coimbra and Lisbon. His only child, a daughter, was the wife of the King of Castile.

His Unlawful Marriage.

His Good Acts.

Interregnum of Two Years.

The death of Ferdinand I., in 1383, was followed by an interregnum of two years, during which Portugal was distracted by the violence of the contending parties, the result of which was that John, the illegitimate son of Pedro the Severe by a lady of Galicia, who had made himself regent, seized the Portuguese throne and was proclaimed king, April 6, 1385, and is known as JOHN I., THE BASTARD.

John the Bastard, A. D. 1385–1433.

John the Bastard was an able, crafty and unscrupulous king. He defeated the efforts of the King of Castile to conquer Portugal, the crown of which was claimed by that monarch in right of his wife, a daughter of Ferdinand I. John the Bastard administered justice faithfully, and did much for the suppression of brigandage. He married Philippa, the daughter of the English Duke of Lancaster, John of Gaunt, by whom he had five sons and several daughters. For the purpose of affording these sons an opportunity of distinguishing themselves, he undertook a war against the Moors on the African side of the Strait of Gibraltar, his forces taking the fortified city of Ceuta in 1415. The Moors made repeated and desperate efforts to recover

His Wars with the Moors of Africa.

Capture of Ceuta.

the city, but the Portuguese garrison held it against all their attacks. This fortress remained in the possession of Portugal until the seizure of the kingdom by King Philip II. of Spain in 1580, when it became a possession of that kingdom, which still retains ownership of it. It was in the reign of John the Bastard that the Portuguese commenced their wonderful career of maritime discovery under the patronage of his fourth son, Prince Henry.

Portuguese Maritime Discovery.

John the Bastard died in 1433, and was succeeded by his son DUARTE, or EDWARD, who reigned five years, and undertook an unsuccessful war against the Moors of North-western Africa. His army was defeated; and his brother, Dom Fernando, or Feridnand, was taken prisoner and treated with great cruelty by the Moors, so that he died from the severities imposed upon him during a captivity of several years.

Duarte, A. D. 1433–1438.

Defeat by the Moors in Africa.

Duarte died of the plague in 1438, whereupon his son ALFONSO V. became King of Portugal. As the new king was a minor, his mother, Queen Leonora, claimed the regency; but she was driven from Portugal by the boy king's uncle, Dom Pedro, Duke of Coimbra, and forced to retire into exile in Castile. Dom Pedro governed Portugal wisely during the eight years of his regency, and the grateful people of Lisbon would have erected a statue to him had he not forbidden them to do so.

Alfonso V., A. D. 1438–1481.

Regency of Dom Pedro.

In 1446 Alfonso V., being fourteen years old, was declared of age. He retained Dom Pedro at the head of the state for some time, and married his daughter Isabel. The king's favorites finally succeeded in influencing their sovereign against Dom Pedro, and Alfonso V. came to regard his uncle and father-in-law as his most dangerous enemy. When Dom Pedro perceived this change in his royal nephew and son-in-law's mind he requested permission to resign his place in the government and to retire to Coimbra. The king granted this request, but Dom Pedro was soon horrified by being accused by his enemies of having poisoned the king's father and mother.

Dom Pedro's Overthrow.

Alfonso V. accepted the accusation against Dom Pedro as true, ordered him to remain on his estates, and forbade his subjects to have any communication with him. Dom Pedro was subjected to other insults and persecutions, and was finally obliged to take up arms in self-defense, as it was evident that his choice lay between death on the battle-field or on the scaffold; but he was defeated and slain in battle with the royal army.

Persecution of Dom Pedro.

His Revolt, Defeat, and Death.

Alfonso V. brutally refused to honor Dom Pedro's body with burial, and it was privately interred by some peasants. Five years afterward Alfonso V. was brought to his senses by the indignant remonstrances of the Pope and the European sovereigns, and he acknowledged Dom

Tardy Justice to Dom Pedro's Remains.

Pedro's innocence and interred his remains with great pomp in the burial-place of the Portuguese kings.

War with the Moors of Africa.

In revenge for the cruel fate of the unfortunate Dom Fernando, Alfonso V. renewed the war against the Moors of North-western Africa, and invaded their country in 1471. He took Tangier, and that post was held by the Portuguese until 1662, when it was ceded to England as a part of the dowry of Catharine of Braganza, the Portuguese bride of King Charles II. of England. Alfonso V. was next involved in a war with Castile, in the hope of obtaining the Castilian crown by marrying Joanna, the reputed daughter of King Henry IV. of Castile; but he was forced to make peace in 1479 and to relinquish his pretensions to the Castilian crown.

Capture of Tangier.

War with Castile.

John the Perfect, A.D. 1481–1495.

Alfonso V. died in 1481, and was succeeded by his son, JOHN II., THE PERFECT, the greatest of the Portuguese kings, and whose reign was the most brilliant in Portuguese history. John the Perfect was a sovereign of broad and liberal views. He was vigorous in the execution of his designs, though he was politic and cautious. He loved justice, and sincerely desired to promote the prosperity and happiness of his subjects.

His Wise Reforms.

Upon his accession to the Portuguese throne John the Perfect found the royal revenues so much exhausted by his father's extravagance that the kingdom was almost bankrupt. He immediately introduced reforms which replenished the royal treasury without oppressing his subjects. He next inaugurated a series of measures by which he broke the power of the feudal nobility and rendered them wholly dependent upon the crown.

His Blows at the Power of the Portuguese Nobles.

He deprived the Portuguese nobles of the power of life and death over their vassals, and restricted that power to himself and to the royal courts—a great gain for the Portuguese people. He compelled all who had obtained grants of land or dignities from his predecessors to produce their title-deeds and other legal documents. In cases in which there was a defective title the claimant was deprived of it, and in cases in which there was extravagant concession it was very much modified. He also deprived his nobles of the right to nominate the local magistrates, who had hitherto been chosen from the nobility, and vested the nomination in the crown, making all classes eligible to these offices, the only qualifications required being learning and merit.

Plots against Him.

These reforms, so essential to the welfare of the masses of the Portuguese people and of the whole kingdom, greatly offended the Portuguese nobles, who formed several conspiracies against their king. The Duke of Braganza headed the first of these plots, but it was detected and the duke was beheaded. Some of the principal nobles organized another conspiracy, having for its object the elevation of the Duke of

Execution of the Conspirators.

Viseo, the king's cousin, to the Portuguese throne; but the mistress of the Bishop of Evora, one of the chief conspirators, betrayed the plot to the king, who slew the Duke of Viseo with his own hand, and caused the other conspirators to be beheaded and imprisoned.

Victories over the African Moors.

John the Perfect prosecuted the war against the Moors of Northwestern Africa with vigor, and his generals achieved many brilliant victories over them. He introduced industry and comfort among his subjects, and vastly increased the wealth and resources of his kingdom.

Portuguese Maritime Enterprises.

In his reign the maritime enterprises of the Portuguese were vigorously pushed forward; and these undertakings, which the king encouraged, contributed largely to the prosperity and greatness of Portugal. The African coasts were explored, and in 1486 Bartholomew Diaz discovered the Cape of Good Hope.

Death of John the Perfect.

The last years of the reign of John the Perfect were rendered melancholy by the death of his only son in 1491. The king survived this affliction only a few years, dying in 1495, sincerely mourned by all classes of his subjects.

Manual the Great, A. D. 1495–1521.

Manuel the Great, the brother of the Duke of Viseo, then became King of Portugal. He was also a great sovereign, and maintained the prosperity of his kingdom at home and its renown abroad. He vigorously continued his illustrious predecessor's policy of establishing Portuguese influence in Africa, and in 1497 Vasco da Gama doubled the Cape of Good Hope and discovered the sea-passage to India, thus opening the way for the establishment of Portuguese influence in Southern Asia; while Cabral discovered Brazil in 1500.

Vasco da Gama and Cabral.

John the Great, A. D. 1521–1557.

Manuel the Great died in 1521, and was succeeded by John III., the Great, during whose reign Brazil was colonized by the Portuguese and Portuguese influence extended in India. John the Great introduced the horrible tribunal of the Inquisition into Portugal, against the protests and entreaties of his subjects, but his reign was a good one on the whole.

The Inquisition.

Sebastian A. D. 1557–1578.

John the Great died in 1557, and was succeeded by his grandson Sebastian, then only three years old. The regency was first exercised by his grandmother, the widow of John the Great, but after her resignation by the king's uncle, Henry. King Sebastian assumed the government himself in 1568, when he was fourteen years of age. Against the desires of his subjects and the advice of his counselors, Sebastian engaged in an ill-advised war against the Empire of Morocco, oppressing his subjects with heavy taxation for its support. In 1578 he invaded Morocco with fifteen thousand men, but was defeated and slain by the Moors in the battle of Alcazarquivir, August 4, 1578.

Regency.

His Defeat and Death by the Moors in Africa.

Henry A. D. 1578–1580.

Henry, Sebastian's uncle, then became King of Portugal, but died in 1580 without heirs; whereupon a number of pretenders appeared for

the Portuguese crown, the most powerful of whom was Philip II. of Spain, whose mother was the daughter of Manuel the Great, and whose first wife was Maria, the eldest daughter of John the Great. Philip II. triumphed over his rivals, and for the next sixty years Portugal constituted a part of the Kingdom of Spain (A. D. 1580–1640).

Portugal's Sixty Years' Union with Spain.

SECTION V.—RISE OF THE MODERN KINGDOM OF SPAIN (A. D. 1479–1516).

The modern Kingdom of Spain was formed by the marriage of Ferdinand the Catholic of Aragon with Isabella of Castile in 1479. This was the beginning of the real greatness of Spain, and the new kingdom at once came into prominence as the leading power of Europe. The reign of Ferdinand and Isabella was signalized by the restoration of order and justice throughout Spain, in place of the lawless violence of the Spanish nobles. According to the good old custom of Aragon and Castile, the new king and queen presided in person once a week in courts of law, in which the poor, who could not afford to employ counsel, might plead their own cause.

Marriage of Ferdinand the Catholic of Aragon and Isabella of Castile.

Order and Justice.

The joint reign of Ferdinand and Isabella is tarnished by the establishment of the infamous court of the Inquisition, which was established in Spain in 1480, as a royal tribunal for the punishment of heresy and kindred offenses. The Dominican Inquisition had been merely an ecclesiastical court, and both Jews and heretics had been treated with more clemency in Spain than in any other European country. Many of the Jews had been elevated to the highest offices in the state, being even intrusted with the education of royal princes; and their wealth as bankers rendered them indispensable to many a necessitous Aragonian or Castilian king. The just and merciful Queen Isabella for a long time resisted her husband's arbitrary policy and her confessor's bigotry, but she finally yielded, and obtained a bull from Pope Sixtus IV. for the establishment of the horrible tribunal in her own kingdom of Castile. In 1481 two thousand persons were burned to death in Spain, and seventeen thousand others were subjected to fine, imprisonment, or other lighter penalties.

The Inquisition.

Its Cruelties.

Ferdinand and Isabella were engaged in a nobler enterprise in their wars with the Moorish Kingdom of Granada. The Moors still far surpassed their Christian neighbors in the arts and sciences, and the greatest European scholars had studied at Cordova, while Arab physicians were still in demand at many European courts. Architecture was developed in the Moorish cities earlier than in Christian Europe, and travelers at this day are struck with wonder at the airy grace of the ruined arches of the Alhambra at Granada.

High Civilization of the Moors of Granada.

Granada's Civil War.

The fall of the Moorish Kingdom of Granada was hastened by domestic dissensions among the Moors themselves. Abu Abdallah, or Boabdil, rebelled against his aged father, MULEY ALI, King of Granada, thus involving the Moorish kingdom in a disastrous civil war; but, after making peace with the Spaniards, ABU ABDALLAH was in turn opposed by his uncle, ABDALLAH THE VALIANT. The King and Queen of Spain took advantage of this civil war among the Moors, and the Spanish armies steadily advanced into the Kingdom of Granada, thus weakened by domestic dissensions. In 1487 the Spaniards took Malaga after a three months' siege; and in January, 1492, they also took Granada, the capital of the Moorish kingdom, after a siege of little more than ten years, thus putting an end to the Moorish power in Spain, which had lasted almost eight centuries. Many of the conquered Moors passed over to Africa and joined their countrymen in Morocco; and all Spain, except the little Kingdom of Navarre in the North, was united under the dominion of Ferdinand and Isabella.

Spanish Invasion of Granada.

Ten Years' Siege and Capture of Granada.

End of Moorish Power in Spain.

Christendom's Joy.

The union of all Spain under Christian rule by the conquest of Granada was hailed with joy throughout Christendom, and was regarded as an offset to the overthrow of the Eastern Roman Empire and the establishment of the Ottoman Turkish Empire in the South-east of Europe.

Persecution and Banishment of the Jews of Spain.

Ferdinand and Isabella tarnished their triumph by an act of persecution. In spite of the dreadful warnings of the Inquisition, the great body of the Jews in Spain still firmly adhered to their national religion. The clergy now induced the covetous Ferdinand and the pious Isabella to issue an order banishing the nine hundred thousand Jews in Spain from the kingdom, although they and their ancestors had lived in Spain for centuries. The Jews heroically refused to barter their religion for the privilege of remaining. The heart-rending incidents of this sudden and compulsory emigration were numerous. Thousands perished from shipwreck, from starvation, and from diseases produced by the fatigues and exposures of the voyage. A Jewish mother was observed killing her little child rather than endure the sight of its misery. This expulsion of the most enterprising of Spanish subjects inflicted a mortal blow upon the wealth and prosperity of the Spanish nation.

The Exiled Jews in Other Lands.

Some of the more hardy and enterprising of the exiled Jews found new homes in other lands, where they soon acquired wealth by their industry or achieved fame by their learning. Sultan Bajazet II. of Turkey spoke thus derisively of Ferdinand: "You call this a wise sovereign, who impoverishes his own kingdom to enrich mine!"

Jews Banished from Portugal.

The example of the King and Queen of Spain was followed by their son-in-law, the King of Portugal, who, in addition to his edict banishing the Jews from his kingdom, issued a still more barbarous decree

that all Hebrew children under fourteen years of age should be wrested from their parents and dispersed throughout his kingdom.

Discovery of America by Columbus.

In the very year that the arms of Ferdinand and Isabella were crowned with the conquest of Granada, A. D. 1492, the great Genoese navigator, Christopher Columbus, under the patronage of Queen Isabella, discovered America. An account of these voyages of discovery will be given more fully in a subsequent portion of this work.

Spanish Conquest of Naples.

Ferdinand's dominions were increased by the expulsion of the French from Naples by the Spanish forces under Gonsalvo de Cordova, *the Great Captain*, in 1503, thus giving the crown of Naples and Sicily to the King of Spain. Queen Isabella died in 1504, thus removing the last check upon her husband's meanness and selfishness.

Joanna of Spain and Philip of Austria.

Joanna, the daughter of Ferdinand and Isabella, was married to the Archduke Philip of Austria, the son of the Emperor Maximilian I. of Germany and his wife, the Duchess Mary of Burgundy. Philip and Joanna succeeded Isabella in the sovereignty of Castile, while Ferdinand continued to reign over Aragon and over Naples and Sicily. Philip died in 1506; and, as Joanna was insane, Ferdinand again became the actual sovereign of all Spain except the little kingdom of Navarre in the North, which was yet independent. Joanna's son Charles remained under the guardianship of his paternal grandfather, the Emperor Maximilian I. of Germany.

Prince Charles.

Spanish Conquest and Annexation of Navarre.

French Navarre.

The part which Ferdinand played in the affairs of Italy and France is related in other parts of this work. Spain was extended to its present limits by Ferdinand's conquest and annexation of the little kingdom of Navarre, on the south side of the Pyrenees, in 1512. The Kings of Navarre were thenceforth restricted to the little kingdom of Bearn, or French Navarre, on the north side of the Pyrenees. Ferdinand died in 1516, and was succeeded by his grandson, CHARLES I., who also inherited the Netherlands and the Austrian states, and became Charles V., Emperor of Germany, in 1519.

Charles I., A. D. 1516–1556.

Spain's Greatness.

During the first century of the modern era—the sixteenth century, or the century of the Reformation—Spain was the greatest and most powerful nation of the world, and its dominions were the most extensive, embracing the rich and flourishing Netherlands, the duchy of Milan, the Kingdom of Naples and Sicily, the Canary Islands in the Atlantic Ocean, the West Indies, Florida, Mexico, Central America, and the greater portion of the vast continent of South America, excepting the Portuguese colony of Brazil until the Spanish conquest of Portugal in 1580, when Brazil and the other Portuguese foreign dominions fell into the possession of Spain, along with Portugal itself, this union of Portugal and its foreign possessions with Spain's dominion lasting sixty years (A. D. 1580–1640).

MEDIÆVAL SPANISH KINGS.

Kings of Asturias and Leon.

A. D. 718 Pelayo.
737 Favila.
739 Alfonso I., the Catholic.
757 Froila I.
768 Aurelio.
774 Mauregato, the Usurper.
788 Bermuda I.
791 Alfonso II., the Chaste.
842 Ramirio I.
850 Ordono I.
866 Alfonso III., the Great.
910 Garcias.
914 Ordono II.
923 Froila II.
925 Alfonso IV., the Monk.
930 Ramirio II.
950 Ordono III.
955 Ordono IV.
956 Sancho I., the Fat.
967 Ramirio III.
983 Bermuda II., the Gouty.
999 Alfonso V.
1007 Bermuda III. (to 1037).

Kings of Castile and Leon.

A. D. 1035 Ferdinand I., the Great.
1065 Sancho II., the Strong.
1072 Alfonso VI., the Valiant.
1109 Uraca and Alfonso VII.
1126 Alfonso VII., Raymond.
1157 Sancho III., the Beloved.
1158 Alfonso VIII., the Noble.
1157 Ferdinand II., King of Leon, which is separated from Castile from 1157 to 1188.
1188 Alfonso IX. of Leon.
1214 Henry I.
1217 Ferdinand III., the Saint.
1252 Alfonso X., the Wise.
1284 Sancho IV., the Brave.
1295 Ferdinand IV.
1312 Alfonso XI.
1350 Pedro the Cruel.
1369 Henry II., the Gracious.
1379 John I.
1390 Henry III., the Sickly.
1406 John II.
1454 Henry IV., the Impotent.
1474 Isabella (married to Ferdinand V. of Aragon, thus uniting Aragon and Castile, 1479).

Kings of Aragon.

A. D. 1035 Ramiro I.
1065 Sancho Ramirez (IV. of Navarre).
1094 Pedro of Navarre.
1104 Alfonso I. the Warrior (Navarre).
1134 Ramiro II., the Meek.
1137 Petronilla, and Raymond of Barcelona.
1163 Alfonso II.
1196 Pedro II.
1213 James I.
1276 Pedro III.
1285 Alfonso III., the Beneficent.
1291 James II., the Just.
1327 Alfonso IV.
1336 Pedro IV., the Ceremonious.
1387 John I.
1410 An Interregnum.
1412 Ferdinand I., the Just (King of Sicily).
1416 Alfonso V., the Wise.
1458 John II. (of Navarre).
1479 Ferdinand II., the Catholic (married Isabella of Castile, thus uniting the two kingdoms).

Kings of Navarre.

A. D. 885 Garcias I. (Son of Count Sancho Inigo, who founded Navarre, 873).
905 Sancho Garcias.
924 Garcias II., the Trembler.
970 Sancho II., the Great (King of Castile).
1035 Garcias III.
1054 Sancho III.
1076 Sancho IV. (Ramirez of Aragon).
1094 Pedro of Aragon.
1104 Alfonso I. of Aragon.
1134 Garcias IV., Ramirez.
1150 Sancho V., the Wise.
1194 Sancho VI., the Infirm.
1234 Theobald I. (Count of Champagne).
1253 Theobald II.
1270 Henry Crassus.
1274 Joanna I. (married to Philip the Fair of France).
1305 Louis X. of France.
1316 John.
1316 Philip V. (Philip the Tall of France).
1322 Charles I. (Charles IV., of France).
1328 Joanna II. and Philip, Count d' Evreux.
1343 Joanna II. alone.
1349 Charles II., the Bad.
1387 Charles III., the Noble.

MEDIÆVAL SPANISH KINGS CONTINUED.

A.D. 1425 Blanche and her husband, John II.
1479 Eleanor de Foix.
1479 Francis Phœbus de Foix.
1483 Catharine and John d' Albret (Navarre annexed to Spain, 1512).

Lower Navarre (in France).

1516 Henry d' Albret.
1555 Jane d' Albret (and her husband Anthony de Bourbon, who died in 1562).
1572 Henry III. (became Henry IV. of France in 1589, to which Lower Navarre was annexed in 1609).

Moorish Kings of Granada.

1238 Mohammed I.
1273 Mohammed II.
1302 Mohammed III.
A.D. 1309 Nassir.
1313 Ismail I.
1325 Mohammed IV.
1333 Jusef I.
1354 Mohammed V.
1359 Ismail II.
1360 Abu Said.
1391 Jusef II.
1396 Mohammed VI.
1408 Jusef III.
1423 Mohammed VII. (deposed).
1427 Mohammed VIII.
1429 Mohammed VII. restored.
1445 Mohammed IX.
1454 Mohammed X.
1463 Muley Ali.
1483 Abu Abdalla.
1484 Abdalla el Zagal (his kingdom conquered in 1492 by Ferdinand II. of Aragon and Isabella of Castile).

ENTRY OF SUNNANWÄDER AND KNUT INTO STOCKHOLM

From the Painting by C. G. Hellquist

CHAPTER XXIX.

FEUDAL NORTH AND EAST OF EUROPE.

SECTION I.—SCANDINAVIAN KINGDOMS (A. D. 875–1523).

Founding of Denmark, Norway and Sweden.

While the Northmen from Scandinavia were committing their ravages throughout Europe the three Scandinavian kingdoms took their rise. Denmark was founded by Gorm the Old, and Norway by Harald Fairhair, about A. D. 875; while Sweden was founded by the royal race of the Ynglingar about A. D. 900.

Denmark

Gorm the Old and His Raids.

Gorm the Old, who reigned over Denmark from 860 to 936, ravaged the northern coast of Germany with fire and sword, plundered Charlemagne's chapel at Aix la Chapelle, took part in the first siege of Paris by the Northmen in 885, and was overwhelmingly beaten by the German king Arnulf in the battle of Louvain in 891.

His Queen, Thyra.

During Gorm's absence on his inroads into Germany and France his kingdom was ruled by his queen, Thyra, a woman of more than ordinary vigor of mind. Gorm the Old was a fierce pagan, but Thyra was favorably disposed toward Christianity. She caused the immense rampart of the Dannevirke to be erected across the peninsula of Denmark at the southern end of Schleswig. This rampart was eight miles long and from forty-five to seventy feet high, and was intended to protect Denmark from German invasions.

The Dannevirke.

Harald Bluetooth.

On the death of Gorm the Old, in 936, his son Harald Bluetooth became King of Denmark. Harald Bluetooth was a cruel and crafty king, and by treachery he succeeded in making Norway tributary to him for a time, but Norway soon regained its independence. Harald Bluetooth professed Christianity, and was baptized, along with his wife and his son Sweyn, by a German monk named Poppa, who also converted a considerable portion of the Danish people. Harald Bluetooth led several expeditions to France to aid young Richard the Fearless, Duke of Normandy.

Sweyn I

Harald Bluetooth lost his life in battle in 985, and was succeeded on the throne of Denmark by his son Sweyn I., who invaded England in 994, during the reign of Ethelred the Unready, and conquered a large

His Conquest of England.

portion of that kingdom. This conquest occupied some years, and in 1014 Sweyn I. died at Gainesborough, in England. Though Sweyn had been baptized in childhood, he relapsed from Christianity into paganism when he attained maturer years.

Harald II.

Sweyn I. left two sons. One of these was HARALD II., who was elected King of Denmark. The other was CANUTE THE GREAT, who

Canute the Great.

was then but fourteen years of age, and was assigned the crown of England. Canute the Great soon conquered the whole of England. Upon

His Conversion.

the death of Harald II., in 1018, Canute the Great also became King of Denmark. Canute the Great had been converted to Christianity in

His Reign in England.

England, and he abolished the worship of Odin in Denmark, making Christianity the state religion. Canute the Great resided chiefly in

Conquest of Sweden and Norway.

England, and his reign belongs more to English than to Danish history. He conquered Sweden in 1025 and Norway in 1027, so that before his death he wore the crowns of four kingdoms, and had founded a great Scandinavian empire.

Hardicanute and Harald Harefoot.

Canute the Great died in 1036, at the age of thirty-six years; and was succeeded on the throne of Denmark by HARDICANUTE, his son by his second wife, and on the throne of England by HARALD HAREFOOT, his son by his first wife. On the death of Harald Harefoot, in 1039, Hardicanute also became King of England, after which he passed most of his time in that kingdom.

Magnus the Good of Norway.

Upon the death of Hardicanute, in 1041, MAGNUS THE GOOD, King of Norway, obtained the crown of Denmark. This was a great gain for the Danes, who enjoyed the benefits of the wise rule of Magnus the Good for five years. On the death of Magnus the Good, in 1047,

Sweyn II.

SWEYN II., the nephew of Canute the Great, became King of Denmark, so that the crowns of Denmark and Norway were again separated.

War with Harald Hardrada of Norway.

Harald Hardrada, King of Norway, sought to defeat this arrangement, and for seventeen years he maintained a constant war with Den-

Invasion of England.

mark, inflicting great suffering upon that kingdom, until peace was made in 1064. Sweyn II. was a good sovereign and a good man, and his reign was one of great prosperity for Denmark. In 1069 he endeavored to wrest England from William the Conqueror, but failed. This was the last of the Danish attempts upon England. Sweyn II. was an ardent friend of Pope Gregory VII. (Hildebrand), with whom

Relations with Hildebrand.

he maintained a constant correspondence; but when Gregory VII. ordered this Danish king to acknowledge himself a vassal of the Pope he refused to do so and resolutely maintained the independence of Denmark.

Nine Troublesome Reigns.

Sweyn II. died in 1076, and five of his fourteen sons reigned over Denmark in succession. The eldest of these, HARALD THE SIMPLE, reigned from 1076 to 1080; CANUTE IV., from 1080 to 1086; OLAF

THE HUNGRY, from 1086 to 1095; ERIK THE GOOD, from 1095 to 1103; and NIELS, from 1103 to 1134. The reigns of these five kings were distracted by internal dissensions and civil war. The death of Niels was followed by a troublesome period, during which Denmark was successively ruled by ERIK HAREFOOT, from 1135 to 1137; ERIK THE LAMB, from 1137 to 1147; SWEYN III. and CANUTE V., from 1147 to 1154; and Sweyn III. alone, from 1154 to 1157.

Waldemar the Great.

This distracted period was ended when WALDEMAR THE GREAT became King of Denmark, in 1157. This sovereign found his kingdom poor, without an army and in great distress; but he left it a prosperous, well-defended and busy nation. He achieved great victories over the heathen Wends and Esthonians, on the southern and eastern shores of the Baltic, compelling them to accept Christianity. Waldemar the Great died in 1182, and was succeeded by his son, CANUTE THE PIOUS, who reduced all of Pomerania and a part of Eastern Prussia under the dominion of Denmark.

Canute the Pious.

Waldemar the Conqueror.

On the death of Canute the Pious, in 1202, his brother, WALDEMAR THE CONQUEROR, became his successor. Waldemar the Conqueror was one of Denmark's greatest kings. He conquered and annexed the whole of Pomerania, and in 1217 the German Emperor granted to him and his successors all the territories north of the Elbe and the Elde, thus making Waldemar the Conqueror the actual master of most of Northern Germany.

Conquest of Pomerania.

His Conversion of Esthonia.

With the sanction of Pope Honorius III., Waldemar the Conqueror undertook to compel the Esthonians to embrace Christianity in 1219, undertaking this task with an army of sixty thousand men and a fleet of fourteen hundred ships. He soon overran all of Esthonia, forcing many of the inhabitants to accept baptism. The Livonian Knights of the Sword bitterly opposed this Danish conversion of Esthonia, declaring that they alone had the right to convert the heathen of that region to Christianity. These knights took up arms to drive out the Danes, and in the several battles which followed between the contending forces the Danes were generally the victors.

His War with the Livonian Knights.

His Captivity in Germany.

When Waldemar the Conqueror returned from Esthonia to Denmark he seemed to be at the height of his power and greatness; but in 1223, while sleeping in his tent during a hunting expedition, he was seized, gagged and bound, along with his eldest son, Prince Waldemar, by Count Henry of Schwerin, who conveyed his captives in a swift sailing vessel to Germany and imprisoned them in a dungeon in the Castle of Danneberg, in Hanover. Waldemar the Conqueror and his son were detained in this shameful captivity for several years, and were only released upon the payment of a ransom of forty-five thousand silver marks.

Dissolution of His Empire.

Waldemar the Conqueror's vast empire fell to pieces during his captivity, his German provinces reverting to the dominion of their Emperor. Waldemar was unable to avenge himself upon Count Henry of Schwerin, and he applied himself to the improvement of his kingdom.

His Code of Laws.

In 1241 he gave Denmark her first uniform code of laws—a code which remained in force for almost four and a-half centuries, and was not wholly abolished even then. Waldemar the Conqueror died three days after the Danish Diet had adopted his code, at the age of seventy-one years, A. D. 1241.

Erik IV.

As Prince Waldemar had died before his father, Waldemar the Conqueror's second son, Erik IV., succeeded his father on the throne of

Abel.

Denmark. Erik IV. was assassinated in 1251 by his brother Abel, Duke of Schleswig, who then acquired the Danish crown. During

The Burgher Class.

Abel's short reign of less than two years the burgher class were first allowed representation in the *Danehof*, the yearly national assembly of Denmark. The burghers were also then granted important municipal privileges which they had not previously enjoyed. King Abel was as-

Christopher I.

sassinated in 1252 by a man whom he had wronged, and was succeeded by his brother Christopher I.

Erik Glipping.

On the death of Christopher I., in 1259, his son Erik Glipping, a child of ten years, became King of Denmark. On the death of Erik

Erik Menved.

Glipping, in 1286, his son Erik Menved, also a child of ten years, succeeded to the Danish throne, and reigned until his death in 1319. Under Erik Glipping and Erik Menved the royal power in Denmark rapidly declined, and the Hanseatic League dictated the terms upon which the Danes should engage in the fisheries.

Christopher II.

Upon the death of Erik Menved, in 1319, his brother Christopher II. ascended the throne of Denmark. After electing Christopher II.

His Charter to His Nobles.

king, the Danish nobles compelled him to sign a charter rendering them almost independent of the Danish crown and entirely exempting them from royal taxation, thus reducing vastly the royal revenues.

Civil Wars.

The efforts of Christopher II. to release himself from these hard conditions involved his kingdom in many civil wars. In 1325 the Danish nobles obtained the assistance of Count Gerhard of Holstein, who de-

Waldemar of Schleswig and Count Gerhard of Holstein.

feated Christopher II. and induced the Danes to dethrone their king. Count Gerhard then made his nephew, Waldemar of Schleswig, King of Denmark; but Count Gerhard was himself the real ruler of Denmark for fourteen years (A. D. 1326–1340), greatly oppressing the Danish people and thus incurring their bitter hatred. The deposed Christopher II. failed in many efforts to recover his throne, and died in 1332.

Gerhard's Murder.

In 1340 Count Gerhard of Holstein was assassinated in the midst of his nobles and his troops by a Jutlander of rank named Niels Ebbesön. The Jutlanders instantly rallied under this intrepid leader and drove

the German troops from Denmark. Count Henry of Holstein, Gerhard's son and successor, took up arms to avenge his father's murder, and defeated the Danes in the battle of Skandersborg, in which Niels Ebbesön was slain. Count Henry then retired to Holstein with his troops, leaving the Danes to manage their own affairs.

Danes Defeated by Count Henry of Holstein.

The Danish nobles elected Waldemar Atterdag, the youngest son of Christopher II., King of Denmark. Waldemar Atterdag revived the power and credit of the Danish kingdom, and was successful in a war with the Hanseatic League. Desiring to secure the marriage of his daughter Margaret with the Crown Prince of Sweden and Norway, he seized the Princess Elizabeth of Holstein-Gottorp, who was betrothed to that prince, and detained her in captivity until he had effected his daughter's marriage with the heir to the Swedish throne. This proceeding involved Waldemar Atterdag in a war with the Counts of Holstein, who formed an alliance with the Hanseatic League and some of the German princes against the Danish king. Waldemar Atterdag was defeated with the loss of a large part of his kingdom, and was obliged to flee from Denmark in 1368. The Hanseatic League managed the affairs of Denmark for four years, but permitted Waldemar Atterdag to return to the Danish throne in 1372 on condition that the Hanseatic League should have a voice in the election of the Danish kings in the future.

Waldemar Atterdag.

His Seizure of Princess Elizabeth of Holstein.

His Wars with the Hanseatic League and the Counts of Holstein.

Waldemar Atterdag died in 1375, whereupon the Danish nobles chose to the Danish throne Olaf V., the son of Margaret, Queen of Sweden and Norway, Waldemar Atterdag's daughter. Upon the death of Olaf V., in 1387, at the age of seventeen, the Danish nobles elected his mother Margaret, "the Semiramis of the North," to the throne of Denmark. Soon afterward Margaret was crowned Queen of Norway, thus uniting Denmark and Norway under one crown.

Olaf V.

Margaret, "the Semiramis of the North."

Harald Harfager, or Harald Fairhair, the founder of the Kingdom of Norway, reigned from A. D. 863 to 933. The high-spirited Norse chieftains whom he reduced under his dominion could not endure their subjugation, and embarked with their followers in piratical expeditions against the coasts of all Europe.

Founding of Norway by Harald Fairhair.

Upon Harald Fairhair's death, in 933, his son Erik the Cruel became King of Norway, and reigned five years. Exasperated by his tyranny, his subjects rose against him in 938 and drove him from Norway, after which they conferred the Norwegian crown upon his brother Hakon the Good, who had been educated in England at the court of King Athelstan, from which circumstance he was called "Athelstan's foster son." Hakon the Good was a wise and good monarch, and the Norwegian people justly cherish his memory to this day. He gave Norway a code of laws, and also endeavored to introduce Christianity

Erik the Cruel.

Hakon the Good.

His Good Reign.

His Defeat and Death.

into his kingdom, but his subjects were staunch pagans, and it required three centuries for their conversion. The sons of Erik the Cruel, aided by Denmark, made repeated efforts to seize the Norwegian crown; and Hakon the Good lost his life in battle with them in 963.

Erik Graafell.

Olaf Trygvæson.

Erik Graafell, Erik the Cruel's son, and his cousin, Hakon Jarl, divided Norway between them until Hakon Jarl's death, in 995, when the Norwegians revolted, and placed Olaf Trygvæson on the throne of Norway. Olaf Trygvæson is one of the great heroes of Norwegian romance, and his exploits constitute a fruitful theme for the songs of poets. He destroyed the pagan temples, and founded the city of Drontheim. He was defeated by the Danes in a great naval battle in the year A. D. 1000, and when all was lost he sprang overboard in full armor to escape capture, and was drowned. For the next fifteen years Norway suffered severely from Danish and Swedish attacks.

His Defeat and Death by the Danes.

Olaf the Saint.

His Christianization of Norway.

Conquest of Norway by Canute the Great.

Olaf the Saint drove out the Danish and Swedish oppressors of Norway in 1015, thus restoring the independence and unity of Norway. Olaf the Saint completed the establishment of the Christian religion in Norway, but accomplished this result in so harsh and cruel a manner that all classes of his subjects were aroused against him. In 1027 Canute the Great of Denmark and England invaded Norway, defeated Olaf the Saint and drove him from his kingdom, and annexed Norway to his own dominions. Olaf the Saint afterward returned and made an effort to recover the Norwegian crown, but was defeated and slain in the battle of Stikklestad.

Sweyn II.

Magnus the Bastard.

Canute the Great then assigned Norway to his son Sweyn II.; but in 1035 Sweyn II. was driven out by Magnus the Bastard, the illegitimate son of Olaf the Saint. Magnus the Bastard lost his life in battle with the Danes in 1047, and was succeeded on the throne of Norway by his uncle Harald Hardrada, who inflicted great suffering upon Denmark in a war of seventeen years. In 1066 Harald Hardrada invaded England for the purpose of wresting that kingdom from Harold, the last of its Saxon kings, but was defeated and killed in the battle of Stamford Bridge, in Yorkshire, September 25, 1066.

Harald Hardrada.

His Defeat and Death in England.

Olaf III.

Magnus Barefoot.

Olaf III., the eldest son of Harald Hardrada, then became King of Norway. His reign was peaceful and prosperous, and he won the affection of his subjects. He endeavored to introduce European civilization into his kingdom. Olaf III. died in 1093, and was succeeded on the throne of Norway by his son Magnus Barefoot, who invaded and conquered the Isle of Man, the Hebrides, the Orkneys and the Shetlands. Magnus Barefoot also invaded Ireland, but was defeated and killed in battle with the Irish, A. D. 1103.

His Defeat and Death in Ireland.

Ejsten I., Sigurd I., and Olaf IV.

Upon the death of Magnus Barefoot the Norwegians made his three sons, Ejsten I., Sigurd I. and Olaf IV., joint Kings of Norway.

Olaf IV. died when a child, and Ejsten I. followed him in 1123, leaving Sigurd I. sole sovereign. Sigurd I. is one of the great heroes of Norway. He fought against the Moors, made a pilgrimage to Jerusalem and there joined his arms with those of King Baldwin, and captured and plundered Sidon.

Anarchy and Civil War.

After the death of Sigurd I., in 1130, Norway was afflicted with anarchy and civil war for fifty-four years, various princes contending for the Norwegian crown. MAGNUS IV. and HARALD IV., the sons of Sigurd I., first rent the kingdom with turmoil. In 1136 SIGURD II., INGE I., EJSTEN II., HAKON III. and MAGNUS V. claimed the sovereignty.

Rival Claimants.

Sverre.

SVERRE restored order and tranquillity to Norway in 1184. He pretended to be a son of Sigurd II., but was generally believed to be the son of a brushmaker. On Sverre's death, in 1202, his only son, HAKON III., became King of Norway. Hakon III. died in 1204, and was succeeded on the Norwegian throne by GUTHRUM, a grandson of Sverre. Guthrum was a mere child, and died after a reign of a few months; after which the Norwegian crown passed to INGE BAARDSEN, a nephew of Sverre. Inge Baardsen's entire reign was passed in civil wars with rival claimants for the Norwegian crown.

Hakon III.

Guthrum.

Inge Baardsen.

Hakon IV.

His Defeat in Scotland.

Upon Inge Baardsen's death, in 1217, HAKON IV., the son of Hakon III., ascended the throne of Norway. Hakon IV. was a wise and powerful monarch, and conquered Iceland in 1261. He made an effort to subdue Scotland in 1262, but was defeated in a battle at the mouth of the Clyde, and soon afterward died in the Orkneys. MAGNUS VI., the son and successor of Hakon IV., sold the Hebrides to Scotland; and his son Erik married the daughter of the Scottish king, Alexander III. Magnus VI. was a good king, and greatly improved the laws of Norway.

Magnus VI.

Erik the Priest-hater.

On the death of Magnus VI., in 1280, his son ERIK THE PRIEST-HATER became King of Norway. Erik the Priest-hater died in 1299; and, as he left no sons, he was succeeded by his only brother HAKON V., who was a good sovereign, and so won the affections of his subjects that at his death in 1319 they conferred the crown of Norway on MAGNUS SMÆK, King of Sweden, who was the son of Ingeborg, the daughter of Hakon V., by her marriage with Erik, the brother of one of the previous Kings of Sweden.

Hakon V.

Magnus Smæk of Sweden.

Hakon VI.

In 1350 Magnus Smæk abdicated the crown of Norway in favor of his second son HAKON VI., who had married Margaret of Denmark. Upon the death of Hakon VI., in 1380, his son OLAF V., Olaf II. of Denmark, became King of Norway, under the regency of his mother Margaret. Upon the death of Olaf V., in 1387, MARGARET of Denmark also became Queen of Norway.

Olaf V.

Margaret of Denmark.

Norway's Decline.

Norway had steadily declined since the death of Hakon VI. in 1380. The kingdom was exhausted by the constant wars with Denmark, and the monopoly of trade which the Hanseatic League enjoyed interfered with the industry of the Norwegian people. The Black Plague, which spread over Europe in 1348, scourged the kingdom for two years, destroying more than two-thirds of its people; and Norway did not recover from its effects for centuries.

The Black Plague.

Sweden under Olaf the Lap-king.

The authentic history of Sweden begins with Olaf the Lap-king, who began to reign A. D. 993, and who received his surname from the circumstance that he had received the homage of his princes while he was an infant in his mother's arms. St. Ansgar, "the Apostle of the North," had introduced Christianity into Sweden in 829; but it had made slow progress. Olaf the Lap-king embraced the new religion and founded a bishopric at Skara, but he could not induce his subjects to accept Christianity, and they continued pagans for over a century longer.

His Conversion by St. Ansgar.

Edmund Colbrenner.

Olaf the Lap-king died in 1024, and was succeeded as King of Sweden by his son Edmund Colbrenner, who died in 1052, when his brother Edmund Slemme ascended the Swedish throne. Edmund Slemme was the last of the Upsala line of Swedish sovereigns, and died in 1055. His reign was mainly signalized by a great persecution of the Christians.

Edmund Slemme.

Civil War of Goths and Swedes.

After the death of Edmund Slemme, in 1055, a fierce war broke out between the Goths and the Swedes, the two chief races in the kingdom; and the Goths succeeded in placing Stenkil, one of their own chiefs, upon the Swedish throne as King of the Goths and the Swedes. Stenkil was a Christian. Anarchy prevailed in the Swedish kingdom for the next century, and the period was signalized by the incessant struggles between the Swedes and the Goths. Stenkil's successors on the Swedish throne were Halstan, from 1066 to 1090; Ingo the Great, from 1090 to 1112; Philip, from 1112 to 1118; and Ingo II., from 1118 to 1135.

Stenkil.

Anarchy.

Civil Wars of Goths and Swedes.

Sverker I.

Sverker I., a Christian, became King of Sweden in 1135. He made great exertions for the establishment of Christianity in his kingdom, and erected many churches and monasteries. He restored order and prosperity to Sweden, and vastly improved the administration of justice. Sverker I. died in 1155, and was succeeded on the Swedish throne by his cousin Erik the Saint, who improved the laws of his kingdom and promoted the spread of Christianity. Erik the Saint conquered a large portion of Finland and forced it to accept the Christian religion. He died in 1160.

Christianity.

Erik the Saint.

During the reigns of Charles Sverkersson (A. D. 1160–1167), Canute Ericsson (A. D. 1167–1195), Sverker II. (A. D. 1195–

1210), Erik Canutesson (A. D. 1210–1216), John Sverkersson (A. D. 1216–1222), and Erik Læspe (A. D. 1222–1250) Christianity spread rapidly in Sweden, and the clergy became the most powerful order in the kingdom. During this entire period of ninety years the only things to record in the affairs of Sweden are the dissensions, civil wars and assassinations of kings, and the disorder and misery of the entire kingdom. The Benedictine monks were the only class of men who did anything to lessen these evils, and many of them had come from England. These zealous men first taught the Swedes how to till the soil and plant gardens, to prepare salt, to build and work water-mills, and to make roads and bridges.

Six Troublesome Reigns.

Christianity.

Civil Wars and Anarchy.

The Benedictine Monks.

A more certain period of Swedish history commenced in 1250. Waldemar, the son of the chief of the powerful family of the Folkungar, was elected King of Sweden; and with him began the dynasty of the Folkungar. Waldemar died in 1275, and was succeeded on the Swedish throne by his brother, Magnus Barnlock, so called because he protected the granaries of his subjects from the rapacity of the nobles. He was a wise king, and greatly increased the royal power. After the death of Magnus Barnlock, in 1290, a long period of civil war ensued between his three sons.

Waldemar.

Magnus Barnlock.

Magnus Smæk, the grandson of Magnus Barnlock, became King of Sweden in 1319, at the age of only three years. In 1320 he became King of Norway by right of his mother. He afterward married his son Hakon to Margaret of Denmark, as already noticed, and placed him on the throne of Norway. As the three Scandinavian kingdoms were now so closely allied, Magnus Smæk undertook to abolish the Swedish Senate, but was dethroned; and in 1363 Albert of Mecklenburg was elected King of Sweden. His reign closed the first period of Swedish history.

Magnus Smæk.

His Dethronement.

Albert of Mecklenburg.

We have now reached an important epoch in the history of the three Scandinavian kingdoms. Queen Margaret of Denmark and Norway, "the Semiramis of the North," was one of the most remarkable women in history. She was a wise and good sovereign to both Denmark and Norway, and greatly endeared herself to her subjects. She adopted as her heir Erik of Pomerania, the grandson of her sister Ingeborg, and earnestly sought to render him worthy of his destiny. She made peace with her old enemies, and maintained good order among her subjects, winning both nobles and peasants to her side. She proceeded from castle to castle, and received the homage and faithful service of the great. She went from province to province, and looked well into matters of law and of right, until all obeyed and served her. Justice was done in her two kingdoms; and even the high-born sea-robbers, who had plagued the kingdoms and defied the laws for so long a period, were seized with

Margaret of Denmark, "the Semiramis of the North."

Her Wise and Good Reign in Denmark and Norway.

terror and were glad to come forward and give surety in money for their future good behavior.

Her Invasion of Sweden and Defeat of King Albert.

Not satisfied with her two kingdoms of Denmark and Norway, Margaret also claimed the crown of Sweden in right of her husband. In 1389 she invaded that kingdom and defeated its king, Albert of Mecklenburg, and kept him a prisoner for six years. She assumed the government of Sweden immediately after her victory. In 1397 she proclaimed an act of union, known as the *Union of Calmar*, uniting the three Scandinavian kingdoms under one scepter, the king to be elected conjointly by the three nations. On this occasion Margaret caused her grandnephew, Erik of Pomerania, to be crowned with great state at Calmar as King of Denmark, Norway and Sweden.

Union of Calmar.

Erik of Pomerania.

Norway's Absorption by Denmark.

After the Union of Calmar the Norwegians entirely lost their independence, and the Danish influence became supreme in Norway. The Norwegian nobles were destroyed as an order, and were obliged to give way to Danish immigrants. For several centuries after Margaret, Norway had no separate existence, being little more than a province of Denmark.

Margaret's Successors under the Union of Calmar.

The Union of Calmar was distasteful to the Swedes, but remained in force for more than a century. This union might have been productive of good to the three Scandinavian kingdoms if Margaret's successors had been as good and as just as she had been. It was true, as Margaret said, that each one of the three kingdoms alone was a poor, weak state, exposed to danger on all sides, but that the three united would make a monarchy sufficiently strong to defy the attacks and schemes of the Hanseatic League and all foes from the side of Germany, and would keep the Baltic clear of danger from foreigners. But none of Margaret's successors were equal to her, as none of her predecessors could be compared to her. After Margaret's sudden death, in 1412, Erik remained sole sovereign of Scandinavia.

Incapacity of Erik of Pomerania.

Erik was a weak and incompetent monarch. During Margaret's last years he had exhibited signs of incapacity, but her abilities had saved him from the consequences of his blunders. He devoted his chief energies to the conquest of Holstein, but his operations were generally unsuccessful. He married Philippa, the daughter of King Henry IV. of England, and her remarkable abilities had much to do with prolonging his reign.

His Dethronement and Exile.

In 1435 the Swedes rose against Erik to resist his oppression of them, and in 1439 a council of state declared him deposed in Sweden. The Danes followed the example of the Swedes by deposing Erik in Denmark. Erik was then absent in the island of Gothland, and sought to return to Denmark, but was not permitted to land, and died in 1459, poor and neglected.

Christopher III., the son of the Duke of Bavaria and the nephew of Erik, was elected King of Denmark, and was crowned the same year, A. D. 1439. In 1442 he was also proclaimed King of Sweden and Norway. He died in 1448, and Charles Canutesson became King of Sweden.

Christopher III.

Charles Canutesson.

The Danish nobles then conferred the crown of Denmark on Count Christian of Oldenburg, a descendant of the ancient Danish kings, with the title of Christian I. He married the widow of Christopher III., and was readily acknowledged king by the Danes, thus establishing the House of Oldenburg, which has ever since occupied the throne of Denmark. In 1450 Christian I. was crowned King of Norway, and he also claimed the crown of Sweden and strove hard to obtain it, but was unable to obtain a firm footing in that country. In 1469 Christian I. married his daughter Margaret to the young King James III. of Scotland, and ceded the Orkney and Shetland Isles to that kingdom in lieu of her dowry.

Christian I., First of the House of Oldenburg, A. D. 1448–1481.

Relations with Scotland.

Christian I. died in 1481, and was succeeded by his eldest son John, who obtained the crown of Denmark only by making hard terms with the Danish nobles, with whom he was unpopular. John failed in his efforts to obtain the crown of Sweden; but he defeated the Lübeck traders, and greatly restrained the insolence of the Hanseatic League. John died in 1513, and was succeeded on the thrones of Denmark and Norway by his only son, Christian II.

John, A. D. 1481–1513.

Christian II., A. D. 1513–1523.

After the death of Charles Canutesson, in 1471, Sweden came under the government of Steno Sture I., a valiant and sagacious ruler, who curbed the insolence of the Swedish nobles, elevated the peasant and burgher classes, founded the University of Upsala, and invited learned men and printers from other countries into Sweden. Steno Sture I. governed Sweden with almost absolute power, and died in 1504. His second successor, Steno Sture II., who became ruler of Sweden in 1512, quarreled with the Archbishop of Upsala; whereupon the tyrannical Christian II. of Denmark reëstablished the Danish supremacy over Sweden. Steno Sture II. being defeated and mortally wounded in battle, A. D. 1520; but the cruel massacre of ninety-four Swedish nobles at Stockholm led to Sweden's liberation by the valiant Gustavus Vasa in 1523, of which we shall give a more full account in a subsequent part of this work.

Sweden under Steno Sture I. and Steno Sture II.

Sweden's Liberation by Gustavus Vasa.

Here the history of the mediæval or feudal period of the three Scandinavian kingdoms ends. These remote Northern kingdoms formed a separate world, as it were, from the nations of Central, Western and Southern Europe, being looked upon as semi-civilized or barbarous by those nations, the latter being influenced and moulded by the remnants of ancient civilization and culture.

End of Feudal Scandinavia.

SECTION II.—RUSSIA, OR MUSCOVY (A. D. 862–1505).

Rurik, Founder of the Grand Duchy of Great Russia, A. D. 862–879.

In A. D. 862 Rurik, a Varangian or pirate chief of the Norman or Scandinavian tribe of Russ, received the invitation of the people of the powerful commercial city of Novgorod, on Lake Ilmen, the capital of a Slavonic principality, to become their ruler. Rurik accepted the invitation and founded the *Grand Duchy of Great Russia*, with Novgorod for its capital. This Norman Varangian chieftain is therefore considered the founder of the Russian Empire.

Greatness of Novgorod.

The Slavic cities of Novgorod and Kiev had each already for several centuries been the capital of an independent Slavic principality. Novgorod had become so powerful that it was commonly said among its neighbors: "Who can resist God and the Great Novgorod!" Kelly says that its commerce extended to Persia and even to India, and from Constantinople to Vineta, a commercial city at the mouth of the Oder. The surrounding nations were its tributaries, from Lithuania to the Ural mountains, and from Bielo Ozero and Lake Rostof to the White Sea. The most active commerce of Novgorod was carried on through the Baltic, for a long time held by the Russian Varangians, a Scandinavian tribe of warriors, who several times reduced Novgorod to tribute.

Rurik and the Republic of Novgorod.

The old Russian chronicle says that Rurik and his two brothers were invited to serve as auxiliaries of the republic of Novgorod for its defense against foreign aggression. After accepting the invitation the three brothers established themselves on the three principal frontiers of the republic—Rurik at Old Ladoga, near the Volkhof; Sinaf at Bielo Ozero, on the northern bank of the lake of the same name; and Truvor at Izborsk, near Pleskof. These positions enabled the Varangian princes to secure the republic against external attacks and likewise to extend their power over it, as they held the chief outlets of its foreign trade. Novgorod was obliged to submit to Rurik and his brothers to save its commerce; and in A. D. 864 Rurik took peaceable possession of this city of wooden huts and barbarian traders, and established his authority over its territories.

Slavic Cities under Rurik's Followers.

As Rurik's two brothers died childless, his rule was undisputed. He was joined by hordes of his Scandinavian countrymen, and bestowed upon them the other Slavic cities, one of his followers taking possession of Kiev, which traded with Constantinople. Rurik gave his Slavonic subjects Scandinavian laws, reigned fifteen years at Novgorod, and died in 879.

Oleg, A. D. 879–913.

As Igor, Rurik's son, was a child four years of age at the time of his father's death, Rurik bequeathed his crown to his cousin Oleg, whom he appointed guardian of his son. This was a wise choice, as Oleg

proved to be a great sovereign and a great conqueror. He was also a faithful guardian of the young prince, and while he held the crown of Great Russia during his life-time he was careful to secure the succession of Igor.

His Greatness.

Oleg vastly extended the Russian dominion. He took Smolensk in 882; and shortly afterward he seized Kiev by a bold stratagem, and made that city one of the capitals of his empire. Kiev had previously been converted to Christianity, and Oleg wisely tolerated and protected that religion, though he was himself a pagan. He next conquered the region between Novgorod and Kiev, thus uniting his two capitals; after which he subdued the Khazars, a Turanian nation that had established a powerful kingdom between the Dnieper and the Caspian Sea in the seventh and eighth centuries. Oleg then drove the Magyars beyond the Russian frontiers into the valleys of the Theiss and the Middle Danube, where their descendants still remain, and firmly established his authority in the conquered lands.

His Conquest of Kiev, Smolensk and the Khazars.

His Expulsion of the Magyars.

Oleg had always desired to extend his dominion at the expense of the Eastern Roman Empire. When he had settled the domestic affairs of his kingdom he descended the Dnieper to the Black Sea with an army of eighty thousand men and a fleet of nine hundred galleys, and attacked Constantinople, fixing his shield on the gate of that city as a trophy, and compelling the Greek Emperor to agree to a humiliating treaty and to pay an immense ransom; after which he returned to Kiev with a vast amount of booty, A. D. 911.

His Attack on Constantinople.

Tribute from the Greek Emperor.

Karamsin, the great Russian historian, says that Oleg "is to be regarded as the founder of the empire's greatness, for to him it owes its finest and richest provinces. Rurik's sway extended from Esthonia, the Slav sources, and the Volkhof, to Bielo Ozero, the mouth of the Oka, and the city of Rostof. Oleg subjugated all the countries from Smolensk to the Sula, the Dniester, and probably to the Carpathian mountains."

Karamsin's Sketch of Oleg.

Oleg died in 913, after a reign of thirty-three years, and was succeeded on the Russian throne by Igor, Rurik's son. Igor was thirty-eight years old at his accession, and proved to be an able sovereign. At the beginning of his reign the Drevlians, encouraged by Oleg's death, revolted against Russian rule, but were reduced to submission by Igor, who likewise conquered the Petchenegs, who occupied the Black Sea coast from the mouths of the Danube to the mouths of the Dnieper.

Igor, A. D. 913–945.

His Conquest of the Drevlians and Petchenegs.

Igor led an expedition against Constantinople in 941, but was driven back with the loss of two-thirds of his force. He was not discouraged by this reverse, but prepared to avenge it, and for this purpose he led a second expedition against the Greek capital in 944. His march was stayed at the mouths of the Danube by the Greek Emperor's offers to

His Expeditions against Constantinople.

The Greek Emperor's Tribute.

pay him the same tribute that Oleg had received. Igor accepted the offer, and concluded a treaty with the Emperor Constantine VIII. in 945, similar to the humiliating treaty which Oleg had imposed upon the Emperor.

Igor's Death in a Massacre by the Drevlians.

Igor was now an old man, and desired to pass the remainder of his life in peace, but the insatiable cupidity of his followers obliged him to undertake new wars, one being with the Drevlians, whom he plundered without mercy. They surprised him near Korosten and massacred him and his entire guard, A. D. 945.

Sviatoslaf, A. D. 945–972.

Sviatoslaf, Igor's only son, and the first sovereign bearing a Russian name, was very young at the time of his father's death; and the government fell into the possession of Olga, Igor's widow, who acted as regent for her son. Olga took a frightful vengeance on the Drevlians for the murder of her husband, but her rule was as wise as it was firm in other respects.

Olga's Regency.

Her Conversion to Christianity.

Thus far Kiev was the only part of Russia that had been converted to Christianity, and the Christians had been protected in their civil and religious privileges. Olga now embraced the Christian religion, and proceeded to Constantinople in 955, where she was baptized by the Patriarch of the Greek Church with great pomp, receiving the Greek name of Helena. Few of Olga's subjects followed her example. She earnestly entreated her son to be baptized, but he replied: "Would you have me be a laughing-stock to my friends?" He sternly refused to be baptized, though he offered no opposition to those who desired to espouse the faith of Christ, for which he openly expressed his contempt, saying that as Christianity taught love and forgiveness it was a religion fit only for women, and not for warriors.

Sviatoslaf's Refusal to be Baptized.

His Conquests.

Sviatoslaf achieved victories over the Khazars, and those people disappeared from Russian history thereafter. He also subdued the Petchenegs and the Bulgarians, and extended his dominion to the Sea of Azov. In 970 he divided his empire among his three sons, giving Kiev to Yaropolk I., the country of the Drevlians to Oleg, and Novgorod to Vladimir.

His Sons.

His War with the Bulgarians and the Greek Emperor.

Soon afterward Sviatoslaf undertook another war against the Bulgarians, and quickly overran their country. The Greek Emperor became alarmed at the proximity of the Russians to Constantinople, and summoned the Grand Duke of Great Russia to evacuate the territories which he had conquered. The Grand Duke's refusal to comply with this demand led to war. The Russians were defeated in every battle, and were obliged to sue for peace. They retired from Bulgaria and started for Kiev; but Sviatoslaf was waylaid by the Petchenegs, while passing through their country, being murdered near the cataracts of the Dnieper, A. D. 972.

His Defeats and Murder.

Civil Wars of His Sons.

After the death of Sviatoslaf a war ensued between his three sons. Oleg was killed, and Vladimir fled across the Baltic sea to the Varangians, so that all the Russian dominions were reunited under YAROPOLK I. But Vladimir never relinquished his design of recovering his lost power; and in 980, after an absence of two years, he returned with a horde of Varangian adventurers, conquered Novgorod and Kiev, put his brother to death, and thus became the sovereign of all Russia, being known in history as VLADIMIR THE GREAT.

Yaropolk I.

Vladimir the Great, A. D. 980–1015.

His Greatness.

His Strong Rule.

His Religion.

Domestic Relations.

Vladimir the Great was one of the greatest of Russian monarchs. His efforts were directed at ridding himself of his Varangian warriors, who had begun to give him trouble, and also to the consolidation of his authority in his empire. He succeeded in both undertakings. He was a pagan when he ascended the Russian throne, and he manifested intense zeal in behalf of his gods, but his religion was very lax. He had six wives, who bore him twelve sons, among whom he subsequently divided his dominions; and he maintained about eight hundred concubines in several of the Russian cities. No woman in his dominions was safe from his violence.

His Conquests.

Vladimir the Great was a great warrior and statesman. He conquered Red Russia and Lithuania, and rendered Livonia tributary. After completing his conquests he resolved to show his gratitude to his gods by offering a human sacrifice to them, and for this purpose he set apart the captives whom he had taken in war; but his courtiers persuaded him that the gods would be better pleased by the sacrifice of one of his own subjects, and therefore he selected a young Varangian, the son of a Christian, and who had been educated in his father's religion. The father refused to give up his son; and the populace, enraged at what they considered an insult to their religion and to their sovereign, attacked and murdered both father and son. The Russian Church has canonized both as its only martyrs.

Two Christian Martyrs as Sacrifices to His Pagan Gods.

His Objections to Islam, Roman Catholicism and Judaism.

The fame of Vladimir the Great as a conqueror had by this time spread into the neighboring countries, and the four great religious bodies of the world made efforts to convert him to their respective faiths. The Eastern Bulgarians recommended to him the conquering religion of Mohammed, and his voluptuous imagination was excited by the description of its paradise and its lovely maidens, but his repugnance to circumcision and the interdiction of wine could not be overcome. Said he: "Wine is the delight of the Russians; we cannot do without it." He disliked Roman Catholicism, which the Germans offered him, because of its Pope, an earthly deity, which seemed to him a monstrous thing. He disliked Judaism, because it had no country, and he did not regard it as either rational to take advice from wanderers under the ban of heaven or desirable to be punished with them.

His Conversion to Greek Christianity.

The Greek religion which Olga had professed had been expounded to Vladimir by a learned man from Constantinople, and he embraced it after due deliberation and was baptized. He at once overthrew the idols and closed their temples. His example was speedily followed by his subjects, who said: "If it be not good to be baptized, the prince and the boyars would never submit to it." Thus the Greek Christian Church was established in Russia in A. D. 988. Vladimir the Great founded churches, schools and new towns during the remainder of his reign, and energetically applied himself to the work of establishing civilization and Christianity among his subjects.

The Greek Church Established in Russia.

Vladimir's Domestic Troubles.

Vladimir the Great was successful in several wars with the Petchenegs in the latter part of his reign. Domestic troubles embittered his last days. He had divided his dominions among his twelve sons, who soon became involved in civil war with each other. He had granted Novgorod to his son Yoraslav, but this son refused to pay the tribute due him as his vassal, and applied to the Varangians for assistance against his father. Vladimir, who was now an old man, took the field against his unnatural son, but died of grief in consequence of being under the necessity of so doing, A. D. 1015.

His Death.

Kelly's Estimate of Vladimir the Great.

Concerning Vladimir the Great, Kelly says: "This rough-hewn colossus had great qualites. If he was not always able to repress his turbulent neighbors, he generally frustrated their incursions. He caused deserts to be cleared by colonies established for that purpose. He built towns, and while he was rendering his country more flourishing he thought it his duty to provide for its embellishment, and invited from Greece architects and workmen eminent for their skill. By their means he raised convenient and substantial churches, palaces and other buildings. The young nobles were brought up in seminaries endowed by the prince, to which his bounty had attracted able masters from Greece. Parents saw with horror these strokes aimed at ignorance, and the honors that were paid to foreign services. It was necessary to use violence in taking their children to place them in the new establishments, where they were to be taught reading and writing, unholy arts, identified with sorcery. Vladimir, who waded through the blood of his brother to the throne of Kiev, received from his nation the surname of the Great, was advanced to the rank of a saint, and is recognized by the Russian Church as coequal with the Apostles."

Sviatopolk's Usurpation.

The civil wars which Vladimir's sons had commenced during their father's lifetime were continued after his death, with the result that SVIATOPOLK, the son of Vladimir's brother Yaropolk I., whom Vladimir had adopted as his own son, seized the Russian throne after murdering three of his brothers. Yaroslav, another brother of Vladimir the Great, entered into an alliance with the German Emperor Henry II.

against Sviatopolk and his father-in-law, Boleslas I., King of Poland. This war was ended in 1019 by a three days' battle, in which Yaroslav and his ally won the victory. Sviatopolk fled to Poland, but died on the journey. **His Overthrow and Flight to Poland.**

Yaroslav thus became the sole sovereign of Russia. He destroyed the Petchenegs in a vigorous campaign, and caused his power to be dreaded by Finland, Livonia, Lithuania and Bulgaria. In 1026 he was defeated in a war with his brother Mstislav, Prince of Tmutarakan, by whom he was defeated. Mstislav had conquered the Crimean remnant of the kingdom of the Khazars in 1016, and had subdued the Circassians in 1022. He dealt generously with his brother, leaving him half of his dominions. **Yaroslav and His Conquests.** **His Defeat by Mitislav.**

After Mstislav's death, in 1036, Yaroslav again became sole sovereign of Russia. After securing his power he engaged in the work to which he is indebted for his real fame. He was an ardent friend of education, and caused numerous Greek works to be translated into the Russian language. He erected schools and churches, increased the number of the towns, and caused many waste tracts to be settled with colonies. He caused the Scriptures to be translated into the Russian language, and transcribed several copies of them with his own hand. He likewise kept the Russian Greek Church independent of the Greek Church at Constantinople, and appointed its bishops without reference to the Greek Patriarch. **Yaroslav's Restoration.** **His Patronage of Learning and the Church.**

Yaroslav's three daughters married respectively the Kings of Norway, Hungary and France; his sons married Greek, German and English princesses; and his sister married the King of Poland. These marriage alliances brought Russia into more intimate relations with the other European nations. **Royal Intermarriages of His Children.**

The greatest work of Yaroslav's reign was the preparation of the *Russkaya Pravda*, the first Russian code of laws. This was a rude and barbarous code, but it was an effort to establish the reign of justice in Russia, and to afford protection to the weak against the strong. This code recognized the right of private vengeance, but restricted it to the relations of the man who had been murdered. If none came forward to avenge the murder, the murderer could atone for his crime by paying to the state a fixed price, regulated by the code according to the victim's rank. Judges were appointed, and circuits were assigned to them; while trial by a jury of twelve respectable persons was secured. **The Russkaya Pravda.**

Several days before his death, in 1054, Yaroslav divided his dominions among his four sons, on condition that the younger ones should obey their eldest brother, Izaslav, to whom he assigned Novgorod and Kiev. This arrangement failed to preserve peace, as the younger sons rejected their eldest brother's control over them, and civil war ensued. **Izaslav and His Brothers**

Civil War and Division of the Russian Dominions. The result was that the Russian dominions were divided into a number of principalities, which were united in a kind of confederation, but which were constantly quarreling and fighting with each other. During this period of confusion the Poles, the Lithuanians, the Danes and the Teutonic Knights seized large parts of Western Russia.

Vladimir II. Vladimir II., who succeeded to the Russian throne in 1114, was a great and wise sovereign; and Russia made great progress during his reign. He died in 1125, and was succeeded by his eldest son Mstislav II., who reigned only six years. At his death, in 1131, Russia became a prey to anarchy, and very soon the dominion of the Russian sovereign embraced only the city of Kiev and its vicinity.

Mitislav II.

Anarchy.

Igor of Susdal. In 1155 Igor of Susdal obtained the ascendency, and for a while it appeared that he would reunite Russia under one scepter. His principality of Susdal comprised the territory included in the present governments of Yaroslav, Kostroma, Vladimir and Moscow, and a portion of Novgorod, Tver, Nijni Novgorod, Tula and Kaluga, or almost all of Central Russia. He had founded the city of Moscow in 1147 and granted it important privileges. He made Kiev his capital, and under his rule that city made rapid progress in wealth and prosperity. He died in 1157, whereupon the struggle between the various Russian princes was renewed.

Moscow and Kiev.

Civil War.

Andrew of Susdal. Igor's son Andrew at first took part in this struggle, but retired into his principality of Susdal, and made Vladimir his capital. He energetically applied himself to the civilization and advancement of his dominions. He greatly improved Moscow, founded a number of other cities and peopled them with the Bulgarians of the Volga, and fairly established the civilization of Central Russia. He was repulsed in an attempt to take Novgorod in 1168, after which he marched against Kiev and took that city by storm, plundering it and forcing it to acknowledge the supremacy of Vladimir.

His Promotion of Civilization.

His Conquest of Kiev.

His Reduction of Novgorod. In 1169 Andrew sent an army under his son against Novgorod, which was then at the height of its power, having recently been admitted into the Hanseatic League. The attack was repulsed, but Novgorod was forced to acknowledge the supremacy of Vladimir. Andrew's principal object was to destroy the numerous petty princes which ruled in Russia and to consolidate the entire power of the various Russian principalities in the hands of the Grand Prince of Vladimir, or Susdal. But these various Russian princes united against him and defeated his armies, thus ending his attempts at consolidation. Andrew was assassinated by his subjects in 1174. His successor was unable to hold the vast domain of Vladimir, or Susdal, together, and the next Grand Prince relinquished all claim to the homage of the petty princes.

His Defeat by the Other Russian Princes.

His Assassination.

Tartar Invasion of Russia.

The internal dissensions which weakened Russia rendered her an easy prey to a foreign foe. The Mongol, or Tartar hordes under Zingis Khan, which had overrun Hungary and Poland, made a resistless irruption into Russia in 1221, defeated the united forces of the Russian princes in the bloody battle of Kalka, ravaged all of Southern Russia, and then returned to Asia.

Civil War Renewed.

No sooner had the Mongols retired from Russia than the internal wars were renewed between the Russian princes, accompanied this time by famine and pestilence. In 1230 Smolensk and Novgorod were scourged by the plague, thirty thousand persons dying in the former city, and forty-two thousand in the latter.

The Plague.

Tartar Conquest of Russia.

In 1237 the Mongols again invaded Russia, being that time under the leadership of Batou, the grandson of Zingis Khan and the Great Kahn of the Golden Horde of Kipzak. The Mongols quickly overran Russia and laid the country waste from the present city of Kazan to Vladimir. The Mongols proceeded to establish themselves in the country after they had conquered it. They founded the cities of Sarai and Kazan, and forced the Russian princes to pay tribute to the Great Khan of the Golden Horde.

Russia under Tartar Rule.

The Mongol conquerors themselves collected the tribute of each district; they received the homage and the appeals of every Russian prince; and when they established a Grand Prince they permitted several rivals to claim the feudal supremacy, made them wait for their decision, and sometimes detained them at their horde for two years. They also prevented the settlement of any order of succession. In short, they made themselves lords-paramount; as they adopted the plan of not permitting any Russian prince, great or small, to assume the government of his states before he had journeyed to the Great Khan of the Golden Horde to solicit the investiture. These journeys usually required a year for their accomplishment, and their effect was to leave the Russian principalities without native chiefs, and under the authority of the Tartar governors, or *Baskaks*. Other effects of these journeys were to prove the supremacy of the Great Khans; to disclose to the Mongols what kind of men they had to deal with; to ruin the Russian rival princes by the customary presents; and to make the Russian princes dread the terrible vengeance of the Great Khan in case they even sighed for independence.

The Great Khan of the Golden Horde.

Mongols in the Russian Armies.

Several Russian princes were summoned to the Great Khan of the Golden Horde and executed. But the Mongols, who punished the insubordination of the Russian princes so cruelly, united with them in their foreign wars, and even served them in their civil wars. A Russian prince would journey to the Great Khan of the Golden Horde to impeach the Grand Prince and to petition to be substituted in his place,

and he would return with a Mongol army, which permitted him to reign over ashes and blood.

Novgorod under Alexander Nevski.

Russia was under the Tartar supremacy for two and a-half centuries. In 1245 Alexander Nevski became Grand Prince of Novgorod. He was a great statesman and warrior, and gained many victories over the Teutonic Knights and the Lithuanians, and recovered the Neva from the Swedes, this latter success giving rise to his surname. He secured the good-will of the Tartars. About this time the Grand Prince of Kiev was considered guilty of an act of rebellion in the eyes of the Great Khan, because he recognized the Pope as Head of the Christian Church, instead of the Greek Patriarch. The Grand Prince's sister was married to the Grand Prince of Vladimir, who refused to pay tribute. This enraged the Great Khan, who sent his armies to dethrone both the Grand Princes, and granted the principalities of Kiev and Vladimir to Alexander Nevski with the title of *Grand Duke of Russia.*

His Victories.

He Is Made Grand Duke of Russia.

His Good Rule.

Alexander Nevski thereafter kept Russia at peace, and employed his wealth in rebuilding the Russian towns and encouraging every good enterprise. His grateful subjects rewarded him with their affection.

His Death and Canonization.

He died suddenly in 1262, believed to have been poisoned by the Great Khan of the Golden Horde, who had begun to suspect him of aiming at independence. At his death he was canonized. He is still revered as a saint, and festivals are yet held in his honor.

Wars among the Russian Princes.

For many years after the death of Alexander Nevski the petty Russian princes kept up a constant warfare among themselves, each aspiring to the sovereignty of the entire Russian nation, and each seeking to supplant the others with the Great Khan of the Golden Horde and to gain his favor; so that there was as much political intrigue and party feeling at the barbarous court of the Golden Horde as there was in the palaces of the Christian princes of Russia. In the meantime Moscow became the Russian capital, and the Grand Duchy of Russia was named *Muscovy*, from which circumstance the Russians are called *Muscovites.*

Muscovy and Muscovites.

Origin of the Cossacks.

Kiev fell into the possession of the Lithuanians, while the Poles also wrested several states from Russia. During these wars many Russians deserted their homes, taking their wives and children into portions of the country hitherto uninhabited; and, as their numbers were increased by fresh refugees, they built villages, cultivated the land, and formed themselves into military republics. These people were called *Cossacks*, from Asiatic tribes of that name, with which they intermingled. The Cossacks themselves are a mixed race of Caucasian and Tartar origin.

Great Fairs.

Commerce flourished in Russia under the Tartar sway; and great fairs were held, which were attended by merchants from Greece, Italy and Asia. At these fairs the goods and products of many countries

were exhibited to the thousands of visitors who flocked to these gatherings.

Ivan I., surnamed Kalita, "the Purse," because he always carried a purse of money with him to distribute to the poor wherever he went, became Grand Duke of Moscow in 1328. He annexed the principality of Tver to the Grand Duchy of Moscow, adorned his capital with many new churches, and began the erection of the Kremlin in 1339. He induced the Head of the Russian Church to remove his residence from Vladimir to Moscow, and purchased the favor and protection of the Tartars by means of his immense wealth. He was a statesman of the Machiavellian sort; and the result of his tortuous policy was the establishment of his authority over the Russian princes, whom he kept down with a firm hand, with the aid of his influence with their Tartar masters. He restored tranquillity to Russia, thus enabling the country to revive and increase its commercial prosperity, and to acquire the means to resist its barbarian oppressors in the future.

Ivan I., Grand Duke of Moscow.

His Able Rule.

Ivan I. died in 1340, leaving to his son Simeon the means to purchase his throne from the Golden Horde, thus securing the direct succession to the throne of Russia. Simeon vigorously carried out his father's policy, and died in 1353; whereupon his brother Ivan II. succeeded him, being also obliged to purchase the sanction of the Golden Horde to his accession. The regular order of succession thus maintained was vastly beneficial to Russia, as it gave the country half a century of repose and prosperity. The Grand Duke's throne became the rallying point of the Russians, and its strength and stability inspired them with a patriotism and courage which clearly indicated an early effort to recover their country's independence.

Simeon.

Ivan II.

Beneficial Result of the Regular Succession.

In 1359 Dimitri II., the son of Ivan II., ascended the Russian throne. His first act was the establishment of the natural order of succession to the Russian crown from father to son. The Russian nobles, or *boyars*, had recognized the advantages held out to them by this mode of succession, and readily agreed to it. Dimitri II. then established his power over the minor Russian princes, making them his vassals. Moscow became the Russian capital in a truer sense than it had ever been before; and it was very evident that at Moscow was the only protecting power, and that it was a matter of necessity to have recourse to its support. The petty Russian princes could only obtain this support by sacrificing their independence, and thus all of them became vassals to the Grand Duke of Moscow.

Dimitri Donskoi.

Regular Succession Definitely Established.

Moscow as the Russian Capital.

From 1362 to 1380 the dissensions of the Tartars, who had by this time split up into several hordes, enabled the Grand Duke Dimitri II. to carry out his project unmolested by them. He was likewise able to beat back the Lithuanians, who thrice besieged Moscow and threatened

Repulse of the Lithuanians by Dimitri II.

His Bold Defiance of the Great Khan of the Golden Horde.

to put an end to his reign. After driving away these enemies and securing his power at home, Dimitri II. felt himself strong enough to cast off the Tartar yoke. In 1378 he refused the customary tribute to the Great Khan, and put to death the Tartar ambassador sent to demand the tribute. The Great Khan burst into a storm of rage when he was informed of the murder of his ambassador, and summoned his hitherto invincible warriors to assist him in the conquest and destruction of Moscow.

His Victory over the Great Khan.

Russia was thus threatened with a great danger, and all the Russian princes united under the Grand Duke Dimitri II. for the common defense. In 1380 the Great Khan advanced into Russia at the head of all his warriors. He encountered the Grand Duke of Moscow and his army on the banks of the Don, and was routed with the loss of one hundred thousand killed. This memorable victory acquired for Dimitri II. the surname of DONSKOI.

Vladimir and Moscow Burned by the Tartars.

In 1382 the Tartars returned, and took and burned Vladimir and Moscow, massacring twenty-four thousand persons in the latter city. Dimitri II. was under the necessity of purchasing peace by making large sacrifices. The defection of the vassal Russian princes had been the cause of his defeat, and he now proceeded to wreak his vengeance upon them and to reduce them to their former vassalage. Dimitri II. passed his last years in consolidating and strengthening his power in his dominions.

Humiliating Peace.

Vassili III.

Dimitri II. died in 1389, and was succeeded as Grand Duke of Moscow by his son VASSILI III. Vassili III. treated his vassal princes with severity; but by timely submissions and presents he gained the goodwill of the Great Khan, who conferred upon him the principalities of Susdal, Tchernigov and Nijni Novgorod, which were thenceforth inalienably united with Moscow. Vassili III. sought to render the Great Novgorod tributary to Moscow, but failed in that undertaking. Money was first coined in Russia during the reign of Vassili III.

His Grants from the Great Khan.

Vassili IV.

Vassili III. died in 1425, leaving to his son and successor, VASSILI IV., the most compact and powerful of the Russian states. Vassili IV. was only five years old at his accession; and his uncle IGOR, taking advantage of the Grand Duke's youth, usurped the Muscovite throne. Vassili IV. appealed to the Golden Horde, who ordered the usurper to relinquish the Muscovite throne. Igor raised an army, took Moscow by surprise, and banished Vassili IV. to a remote part of the Grand Duchy. But in a moment of apparent triumph the usurper found himself abandoned. The whole population of Moscow followed their young Grand Duke into his exile, and Igor was left literally alone with his troops in the city. He was struck with dismay, so that he descended from his solitary throne and restored it to Vassili IV.

Igor's Usurpation and Abdication.

Annexations.

Vassili IV. greatly extended the Muscovite dominions by annexing Galicia, Mozhaisk and Borousk to his Grand Duchy. During his reign, Isidore, the Metropolitan of Kiev, took part in the general council of the Christian Church at Florence in 1439, and signed the act of union of the Greek and Roman Catholic Churches. Vassili IV. disapproved of this act of union, and imprisoned Isidore, who escaped some years later to Italy.

Bishop Isidore.

War with Tartars.

Vassili IV. became involved in a war with the Tartars, who deprived him of his throne, but afterward restored it to him. He was afterward taken prisoner by his cousin, Igor's son, who put out his eyes and seized his throne. The Russian nobles, or boyars, rallied to the support of their blind sovereign; the usurper was overthrown and poisoned; and Vassili IV. was restored to his throne.

Usurpation and Overthrow of Igor's Son.

Ivan the Great, A. D. 1462–1505.

Vassili IV. died in 1462, and was succeeded by his son, the illustrious Ivan III., the Great, who was then twenty-two years old, and who reigned forty-three years (A. D. 1462–1505). The two great objects of the life of Ivan the Great were to liberate Russia from foreign influence, and to make himself the autocrat of his own dominions. He succeeded in both undertakings.

His Success.

His Conquest of Kazan and Novgorod.

In 1469 Ivan the Great conquered the Tartar Khan of Kazan and made him tributary. In the next ten years he conquered and annexed the republics of Novgorod, Perm and Pskov. Novgorod was conquered early in this reign. A rich widow of Novgorod, desiring to raise her Lithuanian lover to the head of the republic, bribed a strong party to revolt and to dethrone the reigning Prince of Novgorod, who applied to Ivan the Great for aid. Ivan entered Novgorod with a large army, in violation of the chartered rights of the citizens, seized merchandise, jewels and money, and sent the insurgent nobles to Moscow.

Revolt and Final Conquest of Novgorod.

When the citizens of Novgorod revolted a second time, Ivan the Great besieged and took the city, forced the citizens to surrender their charter of liberties and to acknowledge him as their sovereign. He removed the great bell to Moscow in 1477. This conquest sealed the fate of Novgorod. Its commerce declined, and its prosperity vanished. Before its conquest by Ivan the Great it is said to have had a population of four hundred thousand souls, but after its conquest it dwindled into a second-rate town of the Russian Empire.

Ivan the Great and the Great Khan.

When an ambassador arrived from the haughty court of the Golden Horde of Kipzak with despatches from the Great Khan to the vassal Grand Duke of Russia, Ivan the Great, like his predecessors, had to ride out to meet him and to conduct him with all possible respect to the hall of state at Moscow, where the most costly furs were spread for his seat, while the vassal Grand Duke and his boyars were on their knees

around the ambassador, listening in profound silence to their Tartar master's letters.

Ivan the Great Ends Russia's Vassalage to the Golden Horde.

But Ivan the Great was too proud to continue this humiliating state of vassalage; and when the Great Khan's messengers arrived he took the papers from their hands, tore them in pieces and trampled them under his feet. He then declared to the Tartar envoys that he would no longer pay tribute to the Great Khan, expelled the Tartar merchants from his capital, and prepared for war. He defeated the Great Khan's troops repeatedly, destroyed their headquarters and all their settlements, and drove them from his dominions in about twenty years from his accession to the Muscovite throne. Thenceforth the Grand Duke of Moscow ceased to be a tributary of the Great Khan of the Golden Horde of Kipzak.

Ivan's Conquests and Defeats.

Ivan the Great next subdued Tver and several other Russian principalities and annexed them to his dominions. He also conquered portions of Siberia in 1499; but was totally defeated in a war with the Livonians and the Teutonic Knights, with whom he was obliged to make peace in 1501.

His Greek Marriage.

As Constantinople had been taken and the Eastern Roman Empire overthrown by the Ottoman Turks in 1453, Ivan the Great desired to become the successor of the Greek Emperors; and, for the purpose of accomplishing this object, he married the Princess Sophia, the heiress of the Byzantine imperial dynasty; his first wife having died some years previous to this. Immediately after his second marriage, Ivan the Great adopted as his insignia the double-headed eagle of the Greek, or Eastern Roman Emperors.

Greek and Italian Arts in Russia.

The appearance of the beautiful and highly-educated Sophia at the Russian court, with a numerous retinue of Greeks and Italians, made Ivan the Great emulous to introduce the useful and elegant arts of Greece and Italy into Russia. He sent for architects, founders and miners, thus beginning that system of improvement which Peter the Great afterwards carried out so energetically and successfully.

Ivan the Great as a Ruler.

Ivan the Great was a master of statecraft, and some of his most important successes were achieved by the exercise of this talent as much as by force of arms. He was a stern despot in his government of his subjects. He broke the power of the petty Russian princes and boyars, and had them beheaded at his pleasure. He was the first who assumed the title of *Autocrat of all the Russias*—a title borne by all his successors on the Russian throne. He inaugurated many important reforms, improved the laws, regulated the public taxes, and reformed the manners of the Russian clergy.

First Autocrat of all the Russias.

The rightful heir of Ivan the Great was Dimitri, the child of his eldest son by his first wife; but Ivan arbitrarily thrust this prince aside,

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THE KREMLIN AT MOSCOW

and finally cast him into prison. Ivan then appointed Vassili, his son by his second wife Sophia, his heir. When remonstrated with for thus arbitrarily changing the succession, Ivan exclaimed sternly: "Am I not, then, at liberty to act as I please! I will give Russia to whom I think proper, and I command you to obey!" The stern tyrant imprisoned the remonstrants. Ivan the Great died in 1505, at the age of sixty-seven years, leaving to his successor a stronger and more compact empire than had ever been ruled by his predecessors.

Ivan's Arbitrary Change of the Succession.

His Death.

SECTION III.—KINGDOM OF POLAND IN MEDIÆVAL TIMES (A. D. 840–1506).

The lands of the Vistula and the Oder were inhabited by tribes of the Slavonic race, known as Poles, or Slavonians of the Plain. In the year A. D. 840 a simple peasant, named Piast, was chosen duke of the Polish territories. About the middle of the tenth century the Poles embraced Christianity, after the conversion of their duke, Micislas, by German missionaries.

The Poles.

Duke Piast.

Conversion to Christianity.

In accordance with the prevailing custom, Duke Micislas divided his dominions among his sons, one of whom, Boleslas I., the Great, first united the numerous Polish principalities into one kingdom, and was crowned King of Poland about the year A. D. 1000. Boleslas the Great extended his kingdom beyond the Oder, the Carpathians and the Dniester, and waged a successful war with the Emperor Henry II. of Germany, conquering Cracow, Moravia, Lusatia and Misnia. He likewise interfered in the wars among the Russian princes. Under his reign Poland prospered, and commerce, the impartial administration of justice and the diffusion of Christianity were fostered and encouraged; and about this time the distinction between the nobles, or warrior class, and the peasants, or tillers of the soil, were distinctly drawn. Boleslas the Great was recognized as King of Poland by his suzerain, the Germano-Roman Emperor.

Kingdom of Poland Founded by Boleslas the Great.

His Great Reign, A. D. 1000–1025.

After a period of anarchy, during the reign of Micislas II. (1025–1034), and the rule of Richa as queen-regent (1034–1037), followed by an interregnum of four years (1037–1041), Casimir I. (1041–1058), the son of Boleslas the Great, occupied the Polish throne. The reign of Casimir I. and that of his warlike son and successor, Boleslas II., the Intrepid (1058–1081), were very brilliant, but of little benefit to the country. Because Boleslas the Intrepid murdered the Bishop of Cracow with his own hand, Poland was placed under a papal interdict, and the Polish people were absolved from their allegiance to their

Micislas II.

Casimir I.

Boleslas the Intrepid.

His Quarrel with the Church, Exile and Suicide.

murderous king; whereupon he fled into Hungary; but being refused refuge there by the Pope's order, he committed suicide.

Ladislas the Careless.

The uneventful reign of Ladislas I., the Careless (1081–1102), was followed by that of Bolelas III., the Wry-mouth (1102–1138), who was an energetic monarch and conquered and annexed Pomerania,

Boleslas the Wry-mouth.

defeated the heathen Prussians and defended Silesia against the Germano-Roman Emperors. A division of the kingdom among the sons of Boleslas the Wry-mouth produced internal dissension and civil war, during which Silesia was severed from Poland, though still nominally subject to it. The Kings of Poland during this period were Ladislas II. (1138–1146), Boleslas IV., the Curled (1146–1173), and Micislas III., the Old (1173–1177), who was deposed.

Casimir the Just.

Casimir II., the Just (1177–1194), reunited the Polish dominions,

Polish Constitution.

excepting Silesia, and established the Polish constitution on a solid foundation, forming a Senate consisting of the bishops, the palatines and the castellans, and accurately defining the rights and privileges of the clergy and the peasantry. The death of Casimir the Just was followed by a contest among the various claimants for the Polish crown,

Rival Claimants and Division of Poland.

which was speedily followed, as usual, by a division of the Polish dominions, during which Pomerania acquired its independence of Polish rule.

Wars with the Teutonic Knights.

About the same time the Teutonic Knights were summoned by the Grand Duke of Masovia to aid him against the heathen Prussians; but these knights soon became enemies as formidable to Poland as they had been to the Prussians, conquering a large portion of Podlachia and

Tartar Invasion.

Lithuania. In 1241 the Mongol, or Tartar hordes overran Poland, reducing the country almost to ruin and defeating the Poles in a great battle near Wahlstatt. Thenceforth Poland declined. Many Polish

Poland's Temporary Decline.

territories were ceded to the Margraves of Brandenburg, while many other portions of Poland were colonized by Germans. Many Jews who fled from persecution in Western Europe about this time sought refuge in Poland.

Kings during this Period.

The Polish kings during this troublesome period were Lesko V., the White (1194–1200), who was deposed; Micislas the Old restored (1200–1202); Ladislas III. (1202–1206); Lesko the White re-

Poland's Complete National Independence.

stored (1206–1227); Boleslas V., the Chaste (1227–1279); Lesko VI., the Black (1279–1289); and, after an interregnum of six years (1289–1295), Premislas (1295–1304). During this same period Poland, which had been claimed as a fief of the Germano-Roman Empire, secured its complete national independence during the reign of the great Emperor Frederick II., in the first half of the thirteenth century.

Poland first arose to consideration in the fourteenth century, when King Ladislas IV., the Short, united Great Poland with Little Po-

land and was crowned at Cracow. In conjunction with Gedymin, Grand Duke of Lithuania, Ladislas the Short waged a vigorous war against the Teutonic Knights. Upon his return from this war this king, then seventy years of age, met with a triumphant reception from his subjects, who hailed him as "The Father of His Country." In 1331 the first Polish Diet was assembled for legislative purposes. Ladislas the Short died after a glorious reign of twenty-nine years (1304–1333).

Ladislas the Short, A. D. 1304–1333.

His War with the Teutonic Knights.

The renowned son and successor of Ladislas IV., CASIMIR III., THE GREAT, who obtained the Polish crown in 1333, added Galicia and Red Russia to the Polish dominions, founded the University of Cracow, and showed himself to be a wise legislator; but his efforts to diminish the power of the Polish nobility, and to establish a powerful citizen and burgher class, proved futile; and the Polish peasants, or serfs, continued to live in the most abject servitude. He cultivated the arts of peace with zeal, amended the laws and consolidated his dominions by profitable exchanges with the neighboring nations. In the latter part of his reign he successfully defended his new acquisitions against the Tartars, Lithuanians and Wallachians.

Casimir the Great, A. D. 1333–1370.

His Great Reign.

King Casimir the Great died in 1370; and, as he was the last of the male line of Piast, the Polish nobles, or *voiwodes*, bestowed the crown of Poland on his great and illustrious nephew, King LOUIS THE GREAT of Hungary, who proved to be a wise and able monarch. Louis the Great of Hungary (1370–1382) was the first elective King of Poland, whose sovereigns were thenceforth chosen by the Polish nobles, or voiwodes, in the Polish Diet; and Poland was thereafter called a *republic*.

Louis the Great of Hungary, A. D. 1370–1382.

Poland an Elective Kingdom.

Louis the Great's son-in-law and successor, the Grand-Duke Jagello of Lithuania, was LADISLAS V. of Poland (1382–1434), who first united Lithuania with Poland, and was the first of the famous race of the Jagellos, who occupied the elective throne of Poland two centuries (1382–1572); during which Poland was one of the most extensive and powerful monarchies in Europe, stretching from the Baltic to the Euxine, or Black Sea, along the whole frontier of European civilization, thus forming an effectual barrier to Germany and the states of Western Europe against barbarian invasion.

Ladislas V., First of the Jagellos, A. D. 1382–1434.

Poland's Extent.

LADISLAS VI. (1434–1444), the son of Ladislas V., was the next King of Poland, but was not acknowledged in Lithuania, which recognized his younger brother Casimir as king. Ladislas VI. also became King of Hungary in 1440, as Ladislas IV., and was defeated and killed by the Turks at Varna in 1444. CASIMIR IV., who reigned from 1444 to 1492, subdued the Teutonic Knights, who had for a long time warred against the Poles; but he was obliged to make many concessions to the voiwodes, thus diminishing the royal power. It was the Polish aris-

Ladislas VI., A. D. 1434–1444.

Casimir IV., A. D 1444–1492.

The Polish Nobility.

tocracy, who alone were represented in the Polish Diet, who had a voice in legislation, the raising of taxes, and the levying of troops. The nobles, or voiwodes, only were regarded as citizens in Poland. The reigns of the next two Kings of Poland—JOHN ALBERT (1492–1501) and ALEXANDER (1501–1506)—were unimportant. Thus at the close of the Middle Ages, Poland was at the zenith of her glory, and thus remained almost a century longer.

Poland's Zenith.

SECTION IV.—KINGDOM OF HUNGARY IN MEDIÆVAL TIMES (A. D. 900–1528).

The Magyars, or Hungarians.

THE Tartaric tribe of Magyars, or Hungarians, who had settled in the valleys of the Theiss and the Danube in the beginning of the tenth century, and who made plundering incursions into Germany, were ruled by a number of princes, the chief of whom was Duke ARPAD, whose descendants subsequently became the only rulers of Hungary. Duke GEISA I., who ruled Hungary in the latter half of the tenth century, received the doctrines of Christianity, and employed German missionaries to teach the gospel of a crucified Saviour to his savage people. At the same time the Magyars abandoned their nomadic habits and applied themselves to agriculture.

Duke Arpad.

Duke Geisa I., and Christianity.

Kingdom of Hungary Founded by Stephen the Pious

Geisa's son, STEPHEN THE PIOUS, who assumed the title and dignity of King of Hungary in the year A. D. 1000, conquered Transylvania, repressed the insolence of the Hungarian nobility, defended the royal power against all encroachments, and reigned with vigor and wisdom. King Stephen founded monasteries and invited Benedictine monks into Hungary. He was the founder of the political institutions of Hungary, and did much to civilize his barbarous subjects and to accustom them to the arts of peace; but the progress of Christianity and civilization in Hungary was retarded by civil wars among the Magyars after Stephen's death.

Progress of Civilization.

Stephen's Great Reign, A. D. 1000–1038.

The Arpad dynasty, of which Stephen the Pious, or St. Stephen, was the greatest as well as the first, occupied the throne of Hungary for three centuries (1000–1302), and furnished some twenty kings to Hungary. Stephen the Pious died in 1038 after a glorious reign. His successor, PETER THE GERMAN, was deposed after a reign of three years (1038–1041); but after the three years' reign of ABA, or OWEN (1041–1044), PETER THE GERMAN was restored and reigned three years more (1044–1047).

His Immediate Successors.

Bela I., and His Immediate Successors.

The reign of ANDREW I. (1047–1061) was uneventful. BELA I. (1061–1064) saved the Christian civilization against the rebellious efforts of a very formidable party. The reigns of SALAMON (1064–

1075) and Geisa I. (1075–1077) were also uneventful. Ladislas I., the Pious (1077–1095), made his name illustrious by his wise legislation and his personal valor, acquiring such fame by his valiant deeds that the Council of Piacenza in 1095 selected him to lead the First Crusade, but this honor and duty was prevented by his death. His successor Colomon, the Learned (1095–1114), was the author of many wise laws. The reigns of Stephen II., Thunder (1114–1131), and Bela II. (1131–1141) were uneventful.

Ladislas the Pious and His Immediate Successors.

During the reign of Geisa II. (1141–1161) colonies of Flemings from Flanders and Saxons from Germany migrated to and settled in Transylvania; and their descendants still retain the manners and customs of their ancestors. The Flemings and Saxons in Transylvania built many towns, and converted a desert land into a blooming region.

Geisa II.

Flemings and Saxons in Transylvania.

The reigns of Stephen III. (1161–1173), Bela III. (1173–1196), Emmeric (1196–1204) and Ladislas II. (1204–1205) were uneventful. Andrew II. (1205–1235) was the first leader of the Sixth Crusade. In the year A. D. 1222 the Magyar nobles, or *magnates*, compelled King Andrew II. to grant a charter called the *Golden Privilege*, Hungary's Magna Charta and the foundation of her free constitution, which conceded great privileges to the nobility and the clergy, and was the foundation of the free constitution of Hungary. Any encroachment by the king on the rights secured to the magnates by the Golden Privilege justified the Hungarian nobles in armed rebellion against their sovereign. The magnates in Hungary, like the voiwodes in Poland, became the actual ruling class; while the Hungarian peasants, or serfs, pined in a condition little better than abject slavery.

Immediate Successors of Geisa II.

Andrew II. as a Crusader.

Andrew II. and the Golden Privilege.

The Magnates of Hungary.

Bela IV. (1235–1270) humbled the insolent and arrogant oligarchy which had ruled Hungary, and through his beneficent efforts Hungary recovered from the ruinous effects of the Mongol, or Tartar invasion in 1242. The reigns of Stephen IV. (1270–1272), Ladislas III. (1272–1290) and Andrew III. (1290–1302) were not distinguished for notable events.

Bela IV.

His Immediate Successors.

Andrew III.—the last of the royal race of Arpad—died in 1302; whereupon Hungary became an elective kingdom, whose sovereigns were thenceforth chosen by the magnates in the Hungarian Diet. The first elective King of Hungary was Wenceslas of Bohemia (1302–1309). The next was Charles Robert of Anjou (1309–1342), belonging to the French dynasty of Anjou, which ruled Naples for a century and a-half.

Hungary an Elective Kingdom.

Wenceslas.

House of Anjou.

Under his renowned successor, Louis the Great (1342–1382)—of the royal House of Anjou in Naples—Hungary attained her highest point of power and prosperity. Louis received the crown of Poland in

Louis the Great, A. D. 1342–1382.

His Great Reign.

1370, extended the Hungarian kingdom to the Lower Danube, and made Venice tributary. He also protected the peasant class of Hungary from the tyranny of the magnates, improved the administration of justice, and established schools of education throughout the Hungarian kingdom. He also conducted many wars in Italy.

Civil Wars.

After the death of Louis the Great, in 1382, disputes and contests for the Hungarian crown arose, which for many years distracted the Hungarian kingdom with civil war, the claimants being Mary (1382–1385), known as "King Mary," and Charles of Durazzo (1385–1387). The civil wars ended and tranquillity was only restored when Sigismund, afterward Emperor of Germany, was King of Hungary (1387–1437), being also King of Bohemia and belonging to the Luxemburg dynasty. Sigismund was imprisoned six months at Siklós, and only obtained his release by taking the oath to observe the Hungarian constitution. King Sigismund and Duke John the Fearless of Burgundy were defeated by the Ottomon Turks in the bloody battle of Nicopolis in 1396.

Rival Claimants.

Sigismund.

Albert.

The next King of Hungary was Albert (1437–1439), of the Hapsburg dynasty, who was Archduke Albert II. of Austria and Emperor Albert II. of Germany. His successor on the Hungarian throne was Elizabeth (1439–1440). The next King of Hungary was Ladislas IV. (1440–1444), who was King Ladislas VI. of Poland, and who was defeated and killed by the Turks in the bloody battle of Varna in 1444.

Elizabeth.

Ladislas IV.

Ladislas V.

A year's interregnum was followed by the reign of Ladislas V. (1445–1457), the youthful son of Ladislas IV. During the child king's minority of thirteen years the valiant John Hunníyades of Transylvania acted as regent of Hungary. The Hungarians were defeated by the Turks in the battle of Rigómagö in 1447, through the treachery of the voiwode of Wallachia. But after a short captivity John Hunníyades saved Hungary from the dominion of the Ottoman Turks by his great victory at Belgrade in 1456.

Victory of Hunniyades at Belgrade.

Matthias Corvinus, A. D. 1457–1490.

In gratitude to the memory of John Hunníyades, the Hungarian Diet in 1457 bestowed the crown of Hungary on his son, Matthias Corvinus, who proved to be one of the greatest and best of Hungarian sovereigns. He successfully defended his kingdom against the Ottoman Turks, and extended its frontiers on the side of Austria. He established a university and a library at Buda, and invited learned men, artists, mechanics and agriculturists into Hungary, to advance the civilization of his subjects.

His Great Reign.

Ladislas VI.

After the death of King Matthias, in 1490, occurred the reign of Ladislas VI. (1490–1516), who was also King of Bohemia. During his reign the Peasant War devastated the kingdom, and Dózsa and his

peasant bands spread ruin and desolation all around, but were finally exterminated by the renowned John Zapolya of Transylvania, and the entire Hungarian peasantry were reduced to a condition of serfdom. **Peasant War.**

During the reign of Ladislas VI. and that of his youthful son and successor, Louis II. (1516–1526), who was only ten years old at his father's death, Hungary rapidly declined. The kingdom was invaded by the Ottoman Turks; and the royal power was diminished by the nobility, who made the raising of taxes, the declaring of war, and the making of peace, privileges of the Hungarian Diet. Finally the nobles, or magnates, usurped the whole royal authority. **Louis II.** **Hungary's Decline.**

When the young King Louis II. of Hungary was defeated and killed by the Turks in the battle of Mohacz, in 1526, a dispute for the Hungarian crown arose—the claimants being John Zapolya, who was a protegé of the Sultan of Turkey, and the Archduke Ferdinand of Austria—which was finally settled by leaving Transylvania and East Hungary in the possession of the mighty Turkish Sultan, Solyman the Magnificent, while West Hungary reverted to the sovereignty of the Archduke Ferdinand I. of Austria. Long and bloody wars between the Austrians and the Turks resulted in favor of the House of Hapsburg; and ever since that period the sovereign prince of Austria has borne the title and dignity of King of Hungary, the history of Hungary since that time being included in that of Austria. **Battle of Mohacz.** **John Zapolya and Ferdinand of Austria.** **Hungary under the House of Hapsburg.**

SECTION V.—KINGDOMS OF BULGARIA, SERVIA AND BOSNIA (A. D. 680–1528).

In connection with the Eastern Roman Empire we have alluded to several conquering races that at times invaded that empire; such as the Bulgarians, Magyars or Hungarians, Russians, Servians and Bosnians. These established independent states, some of which had but a temporary existence; and the most important of these were Bulgaria, Servia and Bosnia. We will now give a brief sketch of these three states. **Origin of these Kingdoms.**

The Bulgarians were a Turanian people who emigrated from their original seats near the Caspian Sea, in two divisions—one founding *Great*, or *White Bulgaria*, on the Volga river; and the other passing to the West in the fifth century, and establishing the kingdom of *Black Bulgaria*, north of the Lower Danube, in A. D. 680. This latter branch of the Bulgarian nation had come into collision with the Avars and Slavonians, and had been assimilated by the Slavonians so largely that this western Bulgarian kingdom is historically Slavic, or Slavonic. **White Bulgaria and Black Bulgaria.**

Says E. A. Freeman, the English historian, in his *Historical Geography of Europe:* "The modern Bulgarians bear the Bulgarian name **Freeman's Statement.**

only in the way in which the Romanized Celts of Gaul bear the name of their Frankish masters from Germany, and in which the Slavs of Kiev and Moscow bear the name of their Russian masters from Scandinavia. In all three cases the power formed by the union of conquerors and conquered has taken the name of the conquerors and has kept the speech of the conquered."

Christianity in Bulgaria.

Christianity was introduced into this Bulgarian kingdom in the middle of the ninth century, and in the latter part of the same century the kingdom was conquered by the Russians. In the middle of the tenth century there was a great revival of the power of the Greek Empire; and Bulgaria again became a part of that empire, making the Danube its southern boundary once more, thus remaining for more than two centuries. A revolt then occurred, which led to the establishment of a second Bulgarian kingdom, extending southward as far as Thessaly and Epirus; but this kingdom was again subdued by the Byzantine Empire in 1018. The Bulgarian kingdom was revived a third time by a revolt against the Eastern Empire in 1187, and remained independent until it was conquered by the Ottoman Turks after their great victory at Cossovo in 1389.

Conquests of Bulgaria by Russia, the Greek Empire and the Turks.

Avars and Servians.

Servia was a part of the Eastern Roman Empire until the early part of the seventh century, when it was ravaged by the Avars, who were afterward driven out by the Serbs, or Servians, a Slavonic people, who had hitherto occupied the region north of the Carpathian mountains, which they had abandoned at the instigation of the Eastern Emperor, to aid him against the Avars. Servia remained in vassalage to the Byzantine Empire for some time; but afterward it became dependent on Bulgaria, until the conquest of that kingdom by the Eastern Empire in 1018.

Servia under the Greek Empire and Bulgaria.

Servia's Independence and Conquests.

Servia became an independent principality in 1043, and formed an alliance with Hungary against the Greek Empire; but its prince was not crowned king until 1217. About the middle of the next century Servia made extensive conquests, and soon included in its dominion Macedonia, Albania, Thessaly, Northern Greece and a part of Bulgaria. The Servian king at that time assumed the title of *Emperor of the Serbs and the Greeks*. This was the zenith of Servian power and glory; as the Servian dominion fell to pieces under subsequent sovereigns, and was absorbed by the Ottoman Turks after their great victory at Cossovo in 1389, though Servia was not permanently annexed to the Ottoman Empire until 1521.

Servia's Fall and Conquest by the Turks.

The Bosnians.

Bosnia took its rise as an independent kingdom in consequence of an irruption of the Bosnians, a Slavonic people, who had migrated from the east in the seventh century; but the new state maintained an uncertain and changeable independence for a considerable time. In the

twelfth and thirteenth centuries Bosnia was under the dominion of Hungary; and in 1339 it became a part of the Servian Empire, to which it belonged until 1370, when it again became independent.

Bosnia under Hungary and Servia.

Bosnia acquired a real position among the European powers under its last dynasty, beginning in 1376, upon the dissolution of the Servian Empire; and it seemed likely at one time to take the place of that fallen empire. But Bosnia's greatness was shattered, along with that of Bulgaria and Servia, by the Turkish victory at Cossovo in 1389; and it finally yielded to Turkish sway, becoming a province of the Ottoman Empire in 1463, though not permanently annexed to that empire until 1528.

Bosnia's Greatness.

Turkish Conquest of Bosnia.

SECTION VI.—END OF THE EASTERN EMPIRE (A. D. 1204–1453).

We have traced the history of the Eastern Roman Empire to the time of its temporary subversion by the leaders of the Fourth Crusade in 1204. The Crusaders had assembled at Venice, and were provided with shipping to be transported to the Holy Land. As they were unable to raise the entire sum demanded by the Venetian republic, they were allowed by the Venetians to postpone its payment on condition of conquering for them some towns on the coast of Dalmatia, which had revolted from the Venetian republic. The Crusaders complied with this condition, and captured the town of Zara, where they passed the winter.

The Fourth Crusade and the Venetian Republic.

The young Greek prince Alexis proceeded to the camp of the Crusaders and solicited their assistance in recovering his throne. The blind old Doge Dandolo of Venice sustained the Byzantine prince's appeal, and the Crusaders finally resolved to aid him, as he promised them ample compensation for their services in the event of success. The Crusaders besieged Constantinople in the summer of 1203, and took the city by storm after a stubborn conflict.

Alexis and the Crusaders.

Alexis was thus established on the Byzantine throne through the aid of the French Crusaders and the Venetians; but, as he had lost the confidence of his subjects by abandoning the Greek religion for the Roman Catholic, he was killed in a revolt of the people of Constantinople the next year, A. D. 1204. The Crusaders were so enraged by this revolt that they stormed and took Constantinople a second time, and put an end to the Eastern Roman Empire for fifty-seven years (A. D. 1204–1261).

Triumph and Death of Alexis.

Temporary Subversion of the Greek Empire.

On the ruins of this Greek Empire the Crusaders founded a Latin Empire under Count Baldwin of Flanders, the leader of the Fourth

New Latin Empire under Count Baldwin of Flanders.

Crusade. The Crusaders divided among themselves as much of the Eastern Empire as they could secure and hold. Baldwin received only about a-fourth of the Empire, which was now split up into a number of petty states, some of which were Greek and others Latin. The remaining European possessions of the Empire were divided between the Venetians, the Lombards and the French; the Venetians receiving a disproportionately large share. The Venetians established a chain of factories or trading-posts along the coast from Constantinople to Venice. Boniface, Marquis of Montferrat, became King of Macedonia.

Greek Emperors of Nice and Trebizond.

The dominions of the Greek Empire in Asia which had not passed into the possession of the Seljuk Turks were divided between the two Greek sovereigns reigning respectively at Nice and Trebizond, each claiming the title of Emperor. The Emperors of Nice were able and prudent sovereigns, and their dominions became powerful and prosperous under their rule.

Restoration of the Greek Empire by Michael Palæologus.

The Latin Empire of Constantinople had no hold on the Byzantine people, and therefore lasted only fifty-seven years, the attempt to Latinize it having failed, so that it fell before the conquering arms of the Emperor Michael Palæologus of Nice, A. D. 1261. The restored Greek Empire under the dynasty of the Palæologi lasted almost two centuries.

Weakness of the Restored Greek Empire.

As the Greek Empire of Nice had claimed to be the legitimate successor of the Eastern Roman Empire, the conquest of Constantinople by Michael Palæologus may be regarded as a revival of that state to some extent; but it never recovered its former power, as the Ottoman Turks pressed upon its eastern border, and the Greek Emperor of Trebizond and some of the Greek and Latin princes continued to rule their territories independent of the Greek Emperor at Constantinople. The restored Greek Empire of Constantinople was merely the most powerful of the various Greek states, which continued to exist without attracting much attention, until they were all finally conquered by the Ottoman Turks in the fifteenth century.

Michael's Vain Efforts to Unite the Greek and Roman Churches.

Michael Palæologus, alarmed by the Pope's threat to arouse Western Europe to a crusade against him, sought to force his subjects into a union with the Roman Church; but his efforts in this direction brought only suffering and sorrow to his dominions, though his violence and cruelty were insufficient to satisfy the Pope, great as they were. Gibbon says that at Rome "his slowness was arraigned and his sincerity suspected."

Andronicus II., A. D. 1282–1332.

On the death of Michael Palæologus, in 1282, his son Andronícus II. became his successor on the Byzantine throne. Andronícus II. put an end to the outrages which his father inaugurated, dissolved the

union with the Roman Church, and restored the Greek religion in his Empire. About twenty years after his accession a band of Catalan adventurers, reinforced by men from all portions of the world and known as the *Great Company*, having rendered good service to the Empire by defeating the Ottoman Turks in two bloody battles, imagined that they had a right to the property of the Empire which they had saved, and commenced such a series of arbitrary exactions upon the Byzantine provinces that the Emperor was put to great exertions to resist them. After their leader had been assassinated, they seized the strong fortress of Gallipoli, on the Hellespont, and defeated the forces of the Eastern Empire twice by sea and land. These successes brought many recruits to their ranks, and they continued their outrages upon the Empire until they were obliged to disperse on account of the lack of provisions and the dissensions of their leaders.

The Great Company.

Andronícus II. associated his son Michael with him in the government at the age of eighteen. Michael's son Andronícus shared the imperial honors at an early age, and soon began to wait impatiently the removal of the obstacles in the way of his sole possession of the Byzantine throne. One of these obstacles was removed by his father's premature death; but then, to the surprise of the younger Andronícus, his grandfather transferred his hopes and affections to another grandson. The younger Andronícus fled from Constantinople in 1321, and began a civil war against his grandfather. After a struggle of seven years the younger Andronícus triumphed in 1328, and the Emperor Andronícus II. retired to a monastery, where he died in 1332.

The Younger Andronicus.

His Revolt and Triumph.

Andronícus III. thus became sole Emperor, and soon afterward he attempted to check the progress of the Ottoman Turks, but was beaten badly and wounded in his only campaign. His early intemperance brought him to a premature grave, and he died in 1341, at the age of forty-four. His son John IV. by his second wife, the Empress Anne, sister of the Count of Savoy, was a child of nine years; and Andronícus III. in his will appointed his old and tried friend, John Cantacuzene, guardian of his son.

Andronicus III., A. D. 1332–1341.

John IV., A. D. 1341–1347.

During the Emperor John's minority John Cantacuzene was the real ruler of the Eastern Empire. He ruled with wisdom and firmness, and recovered the isle of Lesbos and the principality of Ætolia by his valor and prudence. One of his rivals instigated the young Emperor and his mother to cast off John Cantacuzene's rule, and the able minister was declared an enemy of the Empire and of the Church. He at once appealed to arms to recover his power, thus beginning a civil war of six years.

John Cantacuzene's Rule and Revolt

In 1343 John Cantacuzene solicited the assistance of the Ottoman Turks, who were thus admitted into Europe, where they obtained a

John Cantacuzene Aided by the Turks.

permanent footing, thus sealing the doom of the Eastern Roman Empire. With the aid of his Turkish allies, John Cantacuzene reduced the young Emperor to submission, returned to Constantinople in triumph, ascended the Byzantine throne with the title of JOHN V., and acknowledged the son of Andronícus III. as associate Emperor with the title of JOHN VI.

John V. and John VI.

Quarrels between Them.

John VI. made two efforts to overthrow the elder Emperor by force, but was defeated both times. The second time he fled to the Latins of the isle of Tenedos for refuge. With the hope of ending these civil wars, John V. deposed his younger colleague John VI., associated his own son Matthew in the government, and established the Byzantine succession in his own family; thus bringing on a revolution which restored John VI. to the Byzantine throne with the aid of some Genoese troops. John V. retired to a cloister and passed the rest of his life in literary pursuits, A. D. 1355.

Overthrow of John V.

Wars of the Genoese and Venetians.

The reign of John V., like that of Andronícus III., had been distracted by the fierce quarrels of the Venetians, the Genoese and the Pisans, who contended with each other for the monopoly of the Eastern commerce. The Emperor was unable to enforce peace, and the imperial and Venetian forces were several times defeated by the Genoese. John V. was obliged to sign a humiliating treaty, by which he bound himself to expel the Venetians from Constantinople and to grant the desired monopoly to the Genoese. These troubles continued in some degree during the early part of the reign of John VI., who remained on the Byzantine throne until 1391.

The Eastern Empire and the Turks.

The Eastern Empire now began to be afflicted with a most serious evil. The Ottoman Turks, whom John V. had admitted into Europe, had seized the city of Andrianople and made it their capital. They were fully resolved to extend their European dominion to the Hellespont, and the capture of Constantinople was a foregone conclusion. The Turks treated the Greek Emperors as their vassals, and the Emperors were unable to offer any resistance to such formidable foes. The Turkish Sultan Bajazet I. deprived his own son of his eyes for conspiring against him. The Greek Emperor's son John was an accomplice in the plot, his object being to dethrone his father. Sultan Bajazet I. sternly demanded that the Greek Emperor should blind his own son, and the Emperor was obliged to comply with the Sultan's demand.

Manuel II., A. D. 1391–1425.

Upon the death of John VI., in 1391, his second son, MANUEL II., ascended the Byzantine throne. The Turkish Sultan Bajazet I. immediately espoused the cause of the blind prince John. Manuel II. left Constantinople and hastened to France to solicit assistance, and his blind competitor occupied the Byzantine throne. Sultan Bajazet

His Rival John.

I. now threw off the mask, and claimed Constantinople as his own capital. Prince John refused to submit, whereupon the Turkish Sultan invested Constantinople and compelled the city to undergo the horrors of a siege and famine. The Byzantine capital would undoubtedly have fallen into Turkish hands at that time had not the Sultan been suddenly called into Asia Minor to defend his dominions against the Tartar conqueror Tamerlane.

Turkish Siege of Constantinople.

Manuel II., Seeks Aid against the Turks.

The Turkish Sultan's retirement from the siege of Constantinople gave the Greek Emperor a brief respite, and the Emperor Manuel II. took advantage of it to visit the courts of Western Europe to solicit assistance; but none of the European sovereigns were in a condition to afford him any aid. The death of Sultan Bajazet I. was followed by quarrels among his sons, thus preventing the Turks from exerting their united strength against Constantinople.

John Palæologus II., A. D. 1425–1448.

John Palæologus II., the son and successor of Manuel II., ascended the Byzantine throne in 1425. He entertained the idea of effecting a union of the Greek and Roman Churches, and accepted the Pope's invitation to visit Italy to bring about such a consummation. In 1438 John Palæologus II. visited Ferrara, where a general council of the Roman Church was then in session. Pope Eugenius IV. summoned a council at Florence, and a reunion of the Greek and Latin Churches was formally proclaimed in July, 1438. But the Greek Church had no sympathy with this reunion, and the Greek Emperor had planned it only in order to secure the aid of Western Christendom in his efforts to maintain his Empire against the Ottoman Turks.

His Efforts to Unite the Greek and Roman Churches.

Failure of Such Efforts.

In the latter days of the Eastern Roman Empire, whenever the Greeks were in any difficulty, their Emperors always made a show of ending the division between the Eastern and Western Churches; but these schemes never took any real root, because the Greeks were fully resolved never to acknowledge the Pope's authority.

Hungary and Poland Engage in a Crusade against the Turks.

The Pope manifested a disposition to aid his Greek brethren, and sought to excite a crusade of Western Christendom in their behalf, but he found this a difficult task. The English, French and Germans took no part in the affair; but Hungary and Poland, which were more directly interested by being in constant danger of a Turkish invasion, gave a favorable response to the appeal of Pope Eugenius IV. The crowns of those two kingdoms were worn by the same monarch, Ladislas VI. Recruits were obtained from other lands by "an endless treasure of pardons and indulgences, scattered by the legate"; and a Christian army of a hundred thousand men was assembled under the command of Prince John Hunníyades of Transylvania, one of the most renowned warriors of the time. An alliance was made with the Turkish Sultan of Caramania, in Asia Minor; and a fleet was collected from

Battle of Varna. Burgundy, Genoa and Venice. After gaining some advantages, the Christian army was defeated by the Turkish army under Sultan Amurath II. in the bloody battle of Varna in 1444, King Ladislas VI. of Poland and Hungary being among the slain.

Constantine Palæologus, A. D. 1448–1453. Sultan Mohammed II., who succeeded Amurath II. on the Turkish throne in 1451, commenced fortifying the Hellespont, thus bringing on a war between himself and CONSTANTINE PALÆOLOGUS, the last Greek Emperor. In the spring of 1453 a Turkish army of two hundred and sixty thousand men invested Constantinople, and carried the city by storm, May 29th, after a siege of fifty-three days. The Emperor Constantine Palæologus died sword in hand, in a gallant effort to save his capital. In this siege the Turks used cannon, which is the first use of such engines of warfare in so important an operation. Sultan Mohammed II. made Constantinople the capital of the Ottoman Empire, and converted the Church of St. Sophia into a Mohammedan mosque.

Turkish Siege and Capture of Constantinople.

End of the Eastern Roman, or Greek Empire. The capture of Constantinople ended the Eastern Roman Empire, which had existed over a thousand years (A. D. 395–1453). The conquering Turks soon absorbed the remaining territories of the Greek Emperors. Sultan Mohammed II. treated the vanquished Greeks with great liberality, protecting them in their lives and liberties, and permitting them the free exercise of their religion, leaving them one-half of the churches of Constantinople—a toleration the benefits of which they enjoyed for sixty years.

Retrospective View. Thus the Eastern Roman, Greek, or Byzantine Empire—after an existence of more than a thousand years from the final division of the Roman Empire in A. D. 395—ceased forever to exist, giving way before the arms of a conquering barbarian nation professing the religion of Islam. The Empire of the Eastern Cæsars thus subverted had long been in a decaying condition, suffering from an internal ulcer which had been for centuries sapping the vitals of the Empire, and thus rendering it an easy prey to the conquering Ottoman horde which had been gradually extending its sway over Asia Minor during the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries. Thus the Empire over which Justinian had reigned so gloriously in the sixth century had been slowly rotting away, its internal vigor ebbing away by degrees, while its territorial extent was also gradually reduced. Constantinople as a Roman imperial capital began with a Constantine and ended with a Constantine, having been founded and made the capital of the undivided Roman Empire by Constantine the Great in A. D. 330, and having ended as the capital of the Eastern Empire with the fall of that Empire and the death of its last Emperor, Constantine Palæologus, in A. D. 1453.

GREEK, OR EASTERN ROMAN EMPERORS.

Different Races.

A. D. 364 Valens.
379 Theodosius the Great.
395 Arcadius.
408 Theodosius II.
450 Marcian.
457 Leo I., the Thracian.
474 Leo II., the Younger.
474 Zeno the Isaurian.
491 Anastasius I., the Illyrian.
518 Justin I.
527 Justinian I.
565 Justin II.
578 Tiberius II.
582 Maurice the Cappadocian.
602 Phocas.
610 Heraclius.
641 Constantine III., Heracleonus.
641 Constans II.
668 Constantine IV., Pogonatus.
685 Justinian II. (deposed).
695 Leontius.
698 Tiberius III., Aspimar.
705 Justinian II. (restored).
711 Philippicus Bardanes.
713 Anastasius II.
716 Theodosius III.

Isauric Race.

718 Leo III., the Isaurian.
741 Constantine V.
775 Leo IV.
780 Constantine VI. and Irene.
792 Irene, Empress.
802 Nicephorus I., Logothetes.
811 Stauracius.
811 Michael I.
813 Leo V., the Armenian.
820 Michael II., the Stammerer.
829 Theophilus.
842 Michael III., Porphyrogenitus.

Macedonian Race.

867 Basil I., the Macedonian.
886 Leo VI., the Philosopher.
911 Alexander and Constantine VII., Porphyrogenitus.
919 Romanus Lecapenus and his sons.
920 Christopher and his sons.
928 Stephen and Constantine VIII.
945 Constantine VIII. (alone).
959 Romanus II.
963 Nicephorus II., Phocas.
A. D. 969 John I., Zimisces.
976 Basil II. and Constantine IX.
1028 Romanus III., Argyropulus.
1034 Michael IV., the Paphlagonian.
1041 Michael V., Calaphates.
1042 Constantine X., Monomachus, and Zoe.
1054 Theodora.
1056 Michael VI., Stratiotes.

The Comneni.

1057 Isaac I., Comnenus.
1059 Constantine XI., Ducas.
1067 Eudocia and Romanus Diogenes.
1071 Michael VII., Parapinaces.
1078 Nicephorus III.
1081 Alexis I,. Comnenus.
1118 John Comnenus.
1143 Manuel I., Comnenus.
1180 Alexis II., Comnenus.
1183 Andronicus I., Comnenus.
1185 Isaac II., Angelus Comnenus.
1195 Alexis III., Angelus, the Tyrant.
1203 Isaac II. and Alexis IV.
1204 Alexis V., Ducas.

French, or Latin Emperors.

1204 Baldwin I. (of Flanders).
1206 Henry I.
1216 Peter de Courtenay.
1221 Robert de Courtenay.
1228 Baldwin II. (Latin dynasty ended in 1261).

Greek Emperors at Nice.

1204 Theodore Lascaris I.
1222 John Ducas Vataces.
1255 Theodore Lascaris II.
1259 John Lascaris.
1260 Michael Palæologus.

The Greek Empire Restored at Constantinople under the Palæologi.

1261 Michael VII., Palæologus.
1282 Andronicus II., the Elder.
1328 Andronicus III., the Younger.
1341 John Palæologus I. (deposed).
1347 John Cantacuzene.
1355 John Palæologus restored.
1391 Manuel II., Palæologus.
1425 John Palæologus II.
1448 Constantine Palæologus XIV. (killed and empire ended by the Turks, 1453).

GREEK EMPERORS OF TREBIZOND.

A. D. 1204 Alexis Comnenus.	A. D. 1332 Manuel II.
1222 Andronicus I.	1332 Basil.
1235 John I.	1340 Irene.
1238 Manuel I.	1341 Anna.
1263 Andronicus II.	1343 John III.
1266 George.	1344 Michael.
1280 John II. (deposed).	1349 Alexis III.
1285 Theodora.	1390 Manuel III.
1285 John II. restored.	1417 Alexis IV.
1297 Alexis II.	1446 John IV., Cabo Joannes.
1330 Andronicus III.	1458 David (Empire conquered by the Turks, 1461).

CHAPTER XXX.

TARTAR CONQUESTS.

SECTION I.—ZINGIS KHAN'S TARTAR EMPIRE (A. D. 1205–1368).

Zingis Khan, or Temujin.

Zingis Khan, or Temujin, the chief of a small tribe of Mongols, or Moguls, founded a vast Tartar empire in the early part of the thirteenth century—an empire which under his successors embraced almost the whole of the vast continent of Asia and the eastern half of Europe, and was thus the most extensive empire that the world has ever seen.

His Vast Empire.

Origin of the Mongols.

The Mongols were originally a tribe of Tartars who spread themselves south and east of Lake Baikal, in Southern Siberia, and between the rivers that form the Upper Amoor. Even in Zingis Khan's time they numbered about four hundred thousand tents. After his time many nations adopted the name that he had made illustrious by his conquests.

Temujin's First Exploits.

Thirteen Mongol hordes who had obeyed Temujin's father refused to obey the son, who was thirteen years old at the time of his father's death in 1167. The youthful Temujin fought them and reduced them to their allegiance. This was the first military exploit of the great Mongol conqueror, who was destined to conquer five or six million square miles of territory. Though this achievement acquired fame and prestige for the youthful Temujin, he was afterward obliged to seek aid from the Great Khan of the Kin Empire of Tartary, of which he was a vassal. The Great Khan, who had been under obligations to Temujin's father, showed his gratitude for the father and his esteem for the son by reinstating Temujin in his paternal inheritance, and gave him his daughter in marriage.

His Physical Education.

Temujin had been carefully educated, and a very able minister had been intrusted with the care of his childhood. He was well versed in all the exercises constituting a Tartar education. He could shoot his arrow or strike his lance with unerring aim, either when advancing or retreating. He could endure hunger, thirst, fatigue, cold and pain. He managed his fierce and heavy war-horse, or his light and impetuous

courser, with such consummate skill, by word, or look, or touch, that man and beast appeared as but one animal swayed by one common will.

Temujin, the Khan and the Revolted Princes.

After gaining some successes for his father-in-law, jealousies were excited in his family and in the empire by the high favor with which Temujin was regarded at court. Temujin had rendered himself further unpopular by inducing the Khan to assume more authority than the vassal princes were willing to submit to. The princes therefore revolted against the Khan and defeated him in battle; but Temujin replaced his father-in-law on the throne by winning a brilliant victory over the revolted princes. Temujin tarnished his victory with great cruelty, scalding seventy of his enemies to death by flinging them alive into seventy caldrons of boiling water.

The Kahn's Overthrow and Death by Temujin.

At length the Khan's jealousy was excited against his famous son-in-law. After exhausting every conciliatory method, Temujin thought himself justified in building up a party of his own in self-defense. At last recourse was had to arms, and Temujin defeated his father-in-law, who was slain in the battle. After some further struggles with his enemies, Temujin succeeded to his father-in-law's throne, A. D. 1205.

Temujin's Accession.

Temujin was then forty years old, and he convoked all the princes of his empire to do him homage. The Mongol princes all assembled on the appointed day, clothed in white. Temujin advanced into their midst, with the diadem upon his brow, seated himself upon his throne, and received the congratulations and good wishes of the assembled Mongol princes and Khans, who then confirmed him and his posterity in the sovereignty of the Mongol Empire, declaring themselves and their posterity vassals of the Great Khan.

His Address to the Mongol Khans and Princes.

After some additional victories, Temujin repeated the ceremony in a still more simple and signal manner. He stood on a plain mound of turf near the banks of the Selinga, where he harangued the assembled Mongol Khans and princes with an eloquence natural to him, after which he sat down on a piece of black felt which was spread upon the earth. This felt was revered as a sacred relic for a long time afterward. An appointed orator then addressed Temujin thus: "However great your power, from God you hold it. He will prosper you if you govern justly. If you abuse your authority you will become black as this felt, a wretch and an outcast." Seven Khans then respectfully assisted him to rise, conducted him to his throne, and proclaimed him lord of the Mongol Empire. A relative, a saint and a prophet, approached naked, and said: "Brethren, I have seen a vision. The great God of Heaven, on his flaming throne, surrounded by the spirits on high, sat in judgment on the nations of the earth. Sentence was pronounced, and he gave the dominion of the world to our chief, Temujin, whom he appointed Zingis Khan, or Universal Sovereign." He said to

Temujin: "Welcome, with God's order that you henceforth take the name of Zingis Khan." The Mongols ratified this name with extravagant joy, considering it a divine title to the conquest of the world, and regarded opposing nations as God's enemies. Thus early were the great Mongol leader and his followers inspired with fanaticism. **His New Name, Zingis Khan.**

Zingis Khan, as Temujin was thereafter called, thus finding himself at the head of many Mongol tribes of nomads, proceeded to organize his vast dominions into a well-regulated empire, and to establish a powerful army consisting of the various Mongol elements, but mainly officered by Tartar chiefs. At this time Zingis Khan promulgated his celebrated civil and military code for his empire, under the sanction of monotheism, and in perfect toleration of all religions. He likewise afterward caused the best Arabic, Persian, Chinese and Thibetan books to be translated into the Mongol language, and this had a powerful tendency to elevate his subjects above their inherited barbarism. Roads were built and fortifications were constructed. **His Early Enlightened Measures.**

Zingis Khan then began his wonderful career of conquest, which made him master of a large part of the Eastern Continent from the Pacific ocean on the east to the frontiers of Germany on the west. His first great conquest was in the far East. **His Career of Conquest.**

A demand from the Chinese Emperor upon Zingis Khan for the customary tribute from the Mongol tribes brought on a war between the Mongols and the Chinese; and very soon Zingis Khan's well-disciplined Mongol hordes broke through the Great Wall and reveled in the spoils of the Celestial Empire. Though the Chinese used in their defense some substance like Greek-fire and bombs filled with gunpowder, which appears to have been used by them for centuries before its invention in Europe, they were unable to withstand the Tartar hosts. The Mongols took Pekin in 1215; and all of Northern China, a part of the Kin Empire, was annexed to Zingis Khan's dominions. **His Conquest of China.**

After the conquest of China, Zingis Khan turned westward at the head of seven hundred thousand warriors, with the intention of making himself master of every nation from Orient to Occident. With this immense host the great Mongol conqueror overran the Korasmian Empire, the seat of which was in the region east of the Caspian Sea, in the modern Turkestan. The war between Zingis Khan and the Sultan of Korasm was brought on by the aggressions of the Sultan's subjects, who plundered some Tartar merchants. **His March Westward.**

After collecting his seven hundred thousand warriors, and ordering recruits to be raised throughout his dominions and sent after him, Zingis Khan advanced against the Korasmians. During his march he disciplined and regulated his army in the most efficient manner, and gave the following despotic general order: "If a soldier fly without having **His Invasion of Korasm.**

fought, whatever the danger or resistance, he shall die; if from a company of ten, any one or more shall separate, he or they shall die without mercy; if any of the company see their comrades engaged, and do not try to succor or rescue them, they shall die." The Korasmian Empire embraced Korasm, Great Bucharia, Persia, Persian Irak, and much of India. The Sultan of Korasm raised an army of half a million men to oppose the invading hosts of Zingis Khan.

His Conquest and Devastation of Korasm.

The great Mongol conqueror overran all parts of the Korasmian Empire at once, and one hundred and sixty thousand Korasmians were slain in the first battle. The Mongol invaders swept from city to city like a devouring conflagration, leaving behind them only blackened heaps of ruins. Samarcand, Bokhara, Balkh and other flourishing cities, the seats of learning and Central Asian civilization, filled with the treasures of art, and celebrated for their commerce and wealth for centuries, were mercilessly sacked. The country was frightfully devastated, and the inhabitants were barbarously massacred or enslaved. The Korasmian armies were uniformly defeated. The Sultan of Korasm himself, driven to extremity, came to the shores of the Caspian, embarked in a boat amid a volley of arrows, and escaped to an island, where he died of sickness and despair, after enjoining his son Jelaleddin to avenge him.

Death of the Sultan of Korasm.

Jelaleddin's Resistance.

The dauntless and persevering Jelaleddin did all that was possible to obey his father's dying injunctions, but fortune was always against him. He lost city after city, and finally sought refuge in an island of the Indus, where he burned his ships, except one for his family. His soldiers were slain around him while defending themselves like tigers at bay. The Korasmians sought refuge in the rocks where the Mongol cavalry could not penetrate, but as they were reduced to seven hundred men the Sultan disbanded them.

His Escape.

The unfortunate Jelaleddin, after embracing his family and tearing himself away from them, took off his cuirass, stripped himself of all his arms but his sword, bow and quiver, mounted a horse and plunged into the river, in the midst of which he turned around and discharged his arrows in defiance at Zingis Khan, who stood on the bank. The ship in which Jelaleddin's family had embarked split as it left the shore of the river, and the whole family fell into the Mongol conqueror's power, and were afterward murdered.

Fate of His Family.

His Last Adventures and Death.

The fugitive Korasmian prince passed the night in a hollow tree, from fear of wild beasts. He then collected all the fugitives he could muster; and, after being joined by an officer of his household, with a boat laden with arms and provisions, money and clothing, he established himself in India; but after many misfortunes he returned to his native country, where he died in obscurity shortly after his conqueror.

Othman.

A Turkoman horde of Jelaleddin's army engaged in the service of the Sultans of Iconium, or Roum, and from this horde sprung Othman, the founder of the Ottoman Turkish Empire. It is said that the ravages of the four years of Zingis Khan's Korasmian war were so great that five centuries were not sufficient to repair its ravages.

Ravages.

Zingis Khan's Rest and Regret.

In his camp on the Indus, Zingis Khan—who was now master of Persia and all the other territories of the Korasmian Empire—yielded to the desire of his soldiers for repose and for the enjoyment of the wealth which they had acquired through so much toil and blood. Returning slowly, encumbered with spoil, he viewed with regret the desolation around him, and expressed his intention to rebuild the cities which he had reduced to ruins.

March of Two of His Generals.

As Zingis Khan passed the Jaxartes he was met by two of his generals, whom he had sent around the southern shore of the Caspian with thirty thousand men, and who had fought their way through the passes of the Caucasus, traversed the marshy regions near the Volga, crossed that and the desert, and returned to Asia by a route north of the Caspian and Aral Seas.

Zingis Khan and His Vassal Khans and Princes.

When the Mongol princes and generals had returned from their several expeditions, Zingis Khan assembled them in a large plain twenty-one miles in extent, his own quarters occupying a circuit of six miles. Over his throne, on which lay the black bit of felt used at his coronation, was spread a white tent capable of sheltering two thousand persons. Instead of the primitive simplicity of the nomadic Tartars, all the luxury of Asia glittered in the dress, horses, harness, arms and furniture of the assembled multitude. The great Mongol conqueror received the homage of his powerful vassals with majesty, and that of his children and grandchildren with tenderness as they were introduced to kiss his hands. He graciously accepted their presents, and distributed magnificent donations among them in return. One of the presents offered by a vassal prince was a herd of a hundred thousand horses.

Ceremony of Homage.

The mighty Zingis Khan, who was fond of public speaking, now delivered an oration, commending his code of laws, to which he ascribed all his success and all his conquests, which he enumerated minutely. The envoys of his vassal Khans were then admitted to an audience, and were dismissed well satisfied. The entire ceremony was ended with a grand festival, lasting many days. Everything most exquisite in fruits, game, liquors and edibles was served up at the daily banquets.

Zingis Khan's Destructive Conquests.

These festivals were followed by new triumphs, and prosperity seemed always to attend the great Mongol conqueror's military enterprises. Pillage and massacre followed in the course of his conquering hosts. Zingis Khan is said to have destroyed fifty thousand cities and six million human lives in building up an immense empire, six thousand

miles in extent from east to west, from the Sea of Japan to the steppes of Russia.

His Abilities and Character. Zingis Khan was characterized by qualities fitting him for a conqueror—a genius capable of conceiving great and arduous designs, and a prudence equal to the execution of these designs. He was endowed with a persuasive eloquence, a degree of patience enabling him to endure and overcome fatigue, an admirable temperament, a superior understanding, and a penetrating mind that instantly seized the measure proper to be adopted. His military talents were conspicuous in his successful enforcement of a strict discipline and the introduction of a severe police among the Tartars, who had never before submitted to such restraint.

His Monotheism and Religious Toleration. He regulated everything, whether service, recompense or punishment. Intoxication was no excuse for wrong doing; neither were rank or power. Zingis Khan was a monotheist, believing in a deism; but his subjects were individually permitted to embrace any religion which they preferred, providing that they believed in but one God; and every one was protected against persecution for his religious belief. Some of his children and princes of the blood royal were Christians, some were Jews, and some were Mohammedans, with his full consent.

His Code of Laws. Zingis Khan's code of laws was simple. Murder, adultery, perjury, the theft of a horse or an ox, or making a Mongol his servant by another Mongol, were all punished with death. No Tartar was permitted to give a slave meat or drink without his master's consent. Every one was required to serve the public according to his ability. All servile labor was prohibited to the victorious nation, and was abandoned to slaves and strangers. All labor was servile except military labor.

His Army. The service and discipline of the troops were the institutions of a veteran commander. The Mongol troops were armed with bows, cimeters and iron maces; and were divided by hundreds, thousands and tens of thousands.

His Illiteracy. Zingis Khan was unable to read or write, and most of his Mongols and Tartars were as illiterate. Neither he nor his generals left any written memorials of his achievements, and the traditions of these were not collected and transcribed until sixty-eight years after his death; but, as the Mongols mingled in the destinies of so many nations, full accounts of their exploits are given by the Chinese, the Persians, the Armenians, the Syrians, the Arabs, the Greeks, the Russians, the Poles and the Hungarians.

History of His Exploits.

His Death and Burial. Zingis Khan died A. D. 1227, at the age of seventy years, and after a reign of twenty-two years, preserving to the last his complete ascendency over the vassal nations and his own Mongols. He was honored with a magnificent funeral; and his simple sepulcher, beneath a tree

whose shade he had loved, became an object of veneration to his people, who loved fondly to embellish it.

His Offspring.

Zingis Khan left a numerous offspring; and during his lifetime four of his sons, illustrious by birth and merit, had held the chief offices under their father, and their names and deeds are frequently conspicuous in the history of his conquests. These four sons were Toushi, his great huntsman; Zagatai, his judge; Oktai, his minister; and Tuli, his general.

Oktai Khan.

Upon the death of his renowned father, Oktai was proclaimed Great Khan of the Mongols and Tartars, with the general consent. His three brothers and their families, firmly united for their own and the public interest, were content with dependent scepters. According to the father's direction, Tuli ruled the empire as regent while his brother was absent on a military expedition; and Oktai was only confirmed by a general council of the Mongols after the lapse of two years.

Regency of Tuli.

Yelu, the General.

Zingis Khan had selected his ministers and generals with so much judgment that Oktai did not find any change necessary. Oktai placed his chief confidence in Yelu, who had also enjoyed the implicit confidence of Zingis Khan. Yelu was a man of integrity, learned in the laws, of consummate prudence, and entirely devoted to the welfare of the vast Mongol Empire. Oktai placed his brother Tuli, to whom he was sincerely attached, at the head of his armies, and never had any cause to regret his choice.

Oktai's Warriors.

Oktai resolved to carry the renown of his arms to the far West. We are told that one and a-half million Mongols and Tartars were inscribed on his military roll. The Great Khan selected a third of these, and assigned them to the command of his nephew Batou, Tuli's son, who reigned over his father's conquests north of the Caspian. After a festival of forty days, Batou set out on his expedition; and the speed and ardor of his innumerable hosts were such that in less than six years they had measured a line of ninety degrees of longitude, or a fourth part of the earth's circumference.

Batou's Expedition.

Batou's Invasion of Central Asia and Eastern Europe.

The great rivers of Eastern Europe—the Volga, the Don, the Dnieper, the Dniester, the Vistula and the Danube—they either swam with their horses, or passed on the ice, or traversed in leathern boats, which they also used to transport their wagons and artillery across the streams. Batou's victories eradicated every vestige of national freedom in the vast steppes of Turkestan and Kipzak. Batou overran the Tartar kingdoms of Kazan and Astrakhan in his rapid march, and the troops which he sent against Mount Caucasus explored the innermost recesses of Georgia and Circassia.

The civil dissensions of the Russian princes betrayed their country to the Tartars, whose conquering hordes spread from Livonia to the

Conquest of Russia and Invasion of Poland.

Black Sea. The two great Russian capitals—Kiev and Moscow—were reduced to ashes. After effecting the conquest of Russia, the Tartar hordes made a brief but destructive inroad into Poland as far as the frontier of Germany, burning the cities of Lublin and Cracow, and approached the Baltic shores. They defeated Duke Henry of Lower Silesia, the Polish Palatines, and the Grand Master of the Teutonic

Battle of Liegnitz.

Knights, in the terrible battle of Liegnitz, in Silesia, and laid Breslau, the Silesian capital, in ashes. After the battle of Liegnitz, in which Duke Henry of Lower Silesia was killed, the victorious Mongols filled nine sacks with the right ears of the slain, that the number of victims might be counted, in barbarous triumph.

Invasion and Devastation of Hungary.

The Tartar host, numbering half a million men, then turned southward into Hungary, piercing the Carpathian mountains; and the entire country north of the Danube was "lost in a day, was depopulated in a summer." The ruins of cities and churches were overspread with the bones of the inhabitants, who thus "expiated the sins of their Asiatic ancestors." Miserable refugees, enticed from the woods under a promise of peace and pardon, were barbarously slaughtered as soon as they had performed the labors of the harvest and the vintage, and their homes were ruthlessly destroyed.

Siege and Capture of Gran.

The Mongols crossed the Danube and besieged Gran, planting thirty engines against the place, and filling the trenches with sacks of earth and corpses. After they captured the town a promiscuous massacre followed, during which three hundred noble matrons were slain before the victorious Tartar general. Europe was in fear that her cities, her

Europe's Alarm.

arts and her institutions would be extinguished. The Pope sent monks to convert the barbaric invaders to Christianity, but the Tartars astonished him by answering that the sons of God and of Zingis Khan had a divine right to subdue and extirpate the nations, and invited him to submission by means of threats. Frederick II., of Germany, sought to unite Germany, France and England in a league against the common foe. The Tartars were awed by the fame and valor of the French.

Defense of Neustadt.

Neustadt, in Austria, was gallantly defended by fifty knights and twenty cross-bows; and the siege was raised on the approach of a German army.

Batou's Retreat.

After ravaging Servia, Bosnia and Bulgaria, Batou slowly retreated from the Danube to the Volga, to enjoy his victories at Sarai, in latitude 48°—a city which sprang up from the desert as if by magic.

New City of Sarai.

This was the beginning of the empire of the Great Khan of the Golden Horde of Kipzak, under Zingis Khan's descendants, and which had Sarai for its capital. In 1242 Batou's brother led a horde of fifteen

Conquest of Siberia.

thousand families into Siberia, and his descendants reigned at Tobolsk for more than three centuries.

Though Zingis Khan and Oktai were not Mohammedans they tolerated Islam the same as they did Christianity, Judaism and every other religion. A foreigner once told Oktai that Zingis Khan had appeared to him in a dream and had ordered a general massecre of Mohammedans throughout the empire. Oktai asked the man if he knew the Mongol language; and, when the man replied that he did not, Otkai said: "My father spoke no other; how then could you understand him?" Having thus detected the man's falsehood, Oktai punished him with death. **Anecdote of Oktai Khan.**

At Oktai's death his wife set aside her grandson, whom her husband had intended should be his successor, and contrived to keep the regency. In two years she induced the Couroultai, or general council of the Mongols, to name her own son KAYUK as her husband's successor. Her course displeased the good minister Yelu, and she managed gradually to deprive him of power, and he is said to have died of grief. **Regency of His Widow.** **Kayuk Khan.**

Yelu appears to have been the perpetual good genius of the Mongol court, always ready to suggest or forward anything that might have a tendency to elevate the barbarian's views or soften the conqueror's heart —anything to civilize or humanize the rough natures with which he was associated. Yelu was extremely learned in Chinese science, and was the author of numerous volumes on history, astronomy, agriculture, government and commerce. He also had a taste for collecting antiquities and curiosities. **Yelu's Goodness and Learning.**

Yelu was eminently endowed with all the qualities of a great minister —an inflexible steadiness, extraordinary presence of mind, a perfect knowledge of the countries under his master's dominion, judgment in the selection of the individuals whom he employed, and certain resources of money and provisions in case of emergency. He expended vast sums to draw artificers, officers, engineers and learned men from all quarters of the Mongol dominions. He was constantly laboring to inspire the princes with a love for their subjects, and the people with an abhorrence of carnage and rapine. During the sacking of Pekin and the palaces he took only some maps, books, paintings, and a few parcels of rhubarb; the last of which he used to cure the soldiers of a malignant epidemic fever. **His Good Qualities and Wise Acts.**

Yelu was the first teacher of the Mongols, and also their first lawgiver by the advice he gave to Zingis Khan. He arranged a calendar for their use, and instituted wise and beneficial regulations concerning the finances, commerce, duties, the public granaries, and the subordination of officers, both civil and military. His designs encountered opposition from the natural ferocity of the Mongols, from their ignorance and defective early education; but his energy overcame all obstacles. **Yelu as a Teacher and Lawgiver**

Kayuk's reign lasted eight years, during which the Mongols conquered Corea and some countries on the Caspian. Kayuk was priest-

Kayuk's Prodigality.

ridden, and his prodigality was excessive. His subjects complained of having to furnish horses to the nobles, who were always riding post. They were also offended at the sums which the court expended for jewels and precious stones, while the soldiers received scarcely any payment, or their dues were left long in arrears.

Mangoo Khan.

At Kayuk's death his mother and wife sought to place Oktai's former choice upon the Mongol throne; but the great council chose MANGOO, a grandson of Zingis Khan, but not belonging to the reigning branch.

His Rule.

His firmness and celerity, and the well-regulated army that he kept at Karakorum, quelled any tendency to disturbance. Mangoo adopted the religion of the Grand Lama of Thibet, and became somewhat of a devotee. He portioned off the well-deserving of the royal family with fiefs in China, the largest and best of which was granted to his brother

Chinese Ministers.

Kublai Khan, his successor on the Mongol throne. These Tartar lords had Chinese ministers, or stewards, who essentially modified and softened the barbarism of the Mongol government.

Yansheu, as Minister.

Kublai Khan's minister was Yansheu, who was one of these useful officers, and who suggested many wise and profitable measures to repair the ravages of war in his fief, thus causing Tartars and Chinese to be well pleased with each other. This sagacious prime minister, on Mangoo's jealousy of his brother, followed by injustice, advised Kublai Khan to go immediately, throw himself on his brother's neck, and thus disabuse him of his suspicions. Mangoo's tenderness was at once revived, and he repeatedly embraced his brother, while tears flowed down his cheeks. Mangoo assigned his brother still more important trusts.

Hoolagoo's Conquest of Bagdad and Syria.

Hoolagoo had been appointed by his brother Mangoo, the Great Khan, in 1251, to govern Persia. Hoolagoo cleared the North of Persia from the Ismailians, or Assassins, whom he exterminated in 1255. He subjected Iconium, took Bagdad in 1258, capturing the last Khalif, took the cities of Mosul, Aleppo and Damascus, and conquered a large part of Syria. Hoolagoo threatened to march on Constantinople with four hundred thousand men, but was turned aside by the siege of Bagdad. Two hundred thousand Moslems perished in the defense of Bagdad.

Plunder of Bagdad.

When Bagdad was taken by the Mongols it was the richest city in the world. After plundering every part of Persia and Irak, the Tartar hordes hovered around this famous city like a hunter around his prey. The weak Khalif was betrayed by his own Vizier, who encouraged him in a false confidence, grateful to his avarice and indolence, until the Mongols took the city by assault; an army which had been hastily collected for the defense of the city having been lost by an inundation caused by the Tartars. The last Khalif presented himself to his Tartar conquerors with the vases containing diamonds and jewelry of

incalculable value, hoarded by his ancestors for many years. Hoolagoo immediately distributed these valuables among the leading officers of his army.

Murder of the Last Khalif of Bagdad.

Al Mostasem, the last Khalif, was the most abstentious and inaccessible of all the Bagdad sovereigns, the most chary of his august presence, and was in the habit of appearing veiled, as he deemed the sight of his countenance too great a boon to his people. On such occasions the abject populace so thronged the streets of the city that the windows and balconies were hired at extravagant prices to see him pass. Through these same streets, which witnessed his insane pride, exposed to the view of the same multitude, did the cruel Tartar conqueror drag the vanquished Khalif, confined in a leather sack, until his life was extinct. Thus perished Al Mostasem, the last of the Khalifs of Bagdad; and that city was pillaged by the conquering Tartars for a full week, A. D. 1258.

Kublai Khan.

Mangoo perished in the siege of a city of the Song Empire in Southern China, A. D. 1259, thus leaving to his brother KUBLAI KHAN the Grand Khanate of the Mongols, and also the legacy of a war with the Song dynasty in South China, a war which Zingis Khan had almost with his dying breath enjoined upon his successors. But Kublai Khan was obliged to put down another brother, who aspired to the Mongol crown. After defeating this brother and routing his army, Kublai Khan selected wise and able counselors, and these aided in rendering his name illustrious.

Triumph over His Brother.

Kublai Khan's Conquest of Southern China.

Kublai Khan's great achievement was the conquest of Southern China, in which he employed European and Mohammedan engineers. The engines of antiquity, such as the balista and catapult for throwing stones and darts, the battering-ram, etc., were used; as were also Greek-fire, gunpowder, cannon and bombs. The Mongol troops, drawn along canals, lay siege to Hanchow, on the coast, in the most delightful climate of China. The Song Emperor, a mere youth, surrendered, put his head to the earth nine times in token of homage, and then went into exile in Tartary.

Suicide of the Song Emperor.

The last champion of the Song dynasty endeavored to escape by sea, but was surrounded by the Mongol fleet, whereupon he exclaimed: "It is more glorious to die a prince than live a slave!" He then leaped into the sea with his infant Emperor in his arms. His example was followed by a hundred thousand Chinese; and Kublai Khan reigned over all China, founding the Yuen dynasty.

Kublai Khan's Invasion of Japan.

After the conquest of South China, Kublai Khan desired to conquer Japan, but after losing a hundred thousand men by shipwreck and other disasters he relinquished the hopeless enterprise. His conquering arms reduced Pegu, Tonquin, Cochin China, Bengal, Thibet and Corea

His New Conquests.

to different degrees of tribute and subjection. He explored the Indian Ocean with a fleet of a thousand ships for sixty-eight days, during which he visited and subdued portions of the large islands of Borneo and Java, but found nothing that he considered worth retaining in those remote islands.

His Enlightened Rule.

Under Kublai Khan letters, commerce, peace and justice flourished; and the great canal of China, five hundred miles in length, was opened from Nankin to Pekin, his capital, where he displayed all the wealth and magnificence of Asia.

Yelu's Wise Administration.

Yelu, the Chinese mandarin, the minister and friend of Zingis Khan and his sons and successors, had labored incessantly, during a spotless administration of thirty years, to mitigate or suspend the horrors of war; to save the monuments and to restore the preëminence of science; to restrain the military commander by restoring the civil magistrates; and to instill into the minds of the Mongols the love of industry, justice and peace. He struggled with the barbarism of the first Mongol conquerors, but his salutary lessons produced abundant fruits in the second generation.

Mongol Adoption of Chinese Civilization.

Kublai Khan had been educated in Chinese manners and customs, and he inspired the loyalty of his Chinese subjects by restoring the forms of their venerable constitution, as it was easier to adopt than to invent, and as the conquering Mongols gradually submitted to the customs, manners, habits, fashions, laws and prejudices of the vanquished Chinese. The numbers, servitude, steady sense and impregnability of character of the Chinese were such that their Mongol conquerors appear repeatedly to have been absorbed and dissolved in the vast homogenous mass of the teeming millions of the population of China. Marco Polo, the great Venetian traveler, visited Kublai Khan's court at Pekin.

Dissolution of the Mongol Empire.

After the death of Kublai Khan, in 1294, the Khans of Kipzak and Russia, the Khans of Zagatai, or Transoxiana, and the Khans of Iran, or Persia, although they received investiture from the Mongol Emperor of China, threw off the supremacy of Zingis Khan's degenerate posterity, who reigned at Pekin for three quarters of a century after Kublai Khan's death. In 1368 the Mongol, or Yuen dynasty, founded by Kublai Khan, was expelled from China; and the native Ming dynasty then occupied the Chinese throne until 1644.

Timour's Good Reign in China.

Kublai Khan was succeeded on the Mongol throne by Timour, the youngest of his brother's three sons, A. D. 1294. Timour's clemency and regard for his subjects endeared him to the Chinese, who extol him as a model of perfection. He often visited the needy and unfortunate, and frequently sent his almoners and agents into the provinces to search out objects of charity. No sovereign ever displayed better judgment in the choice of his ministers and generals, and none ever exhibited a

more marked contempt for flattery and luxury. Timour died without children, and did not appoint a successor.

Hayshan's Reign in China.

The Mongols and Chinese desired that Hayshan, Timour's brother, should be his successor; but another brother claimed the Chinese throne against a faction, as if for himself, and then resigned the scepter to Hayshan, surprising his brother with the grateful assurance that he acted only in his interest. HAYSHAN thus ascended the Chinese throne. He was fond of the writings of Confucius, and caused them to be translated into the Mongol language. He was licentious and intemperate, but was equitable and generous. He died after a reign of three years.

Ayyulipalipata's Reign in China.

Hayshan was succeeded by his noble-minded brother, AYYULIPALIPATA, whose virtues were rather passive. During his reign China was afflicted by drought, famine, pestilence, inundations and earthquakes. These, together with eclipses, struck terror into the hearts of the Chinese. The famine which began in 1342 carried off thirteen millions of the population of China. The Emperor revived the literary examinations for office, and associated Tartar mandarins with Chinese. He sought to abdicate his throne in favor of his son, but the son would not agree to this.

Shotepala's Reign in China.

The next Mongol Emperor of China was SHOTEPALA, who ascended the throne in 1350, and who gevorned with consummate wisdom, though he was but nineteen years of age at his accession. He reformed the luxury, debauchery and avarice of the Mongol court, but was assassinated after a reign of four years by the friends of a wretch whom he had justly punished.

Last Mongol Emperors of China.

The next Mongol Emperor was indolent, but punished the assassins who had elevated him to the Mongol-Chinese throne. He was exhorted to banish from the palace the host of eunuchs, astrologers, physicians, women, and other idlers, whose maintenance required vast sums. His death in 1352 was followed by plots, assassinations and cabals, which continued through several short and worthless reigns.

Touhan's Reign in China.

An Empress, who was permitted to choose a sovereign, set up TOUHAN, Hayshan's grandson, who was noted for his luxury, indolence, dissipation, timidity and cruelty. His artful minister persuaded him that every official duty was a great burden for his august majesty; and while the minister was embroiling his sovereign in a thousand blind cabals, the Emperor's ambitious and licentious wife involved him in a disastrous war with Corea, which completed the ruin of the Mongol-Chinese Empire.

Overthrow of the Mongol Dynasty in China

To add to the Emperor's troubles, a bloody revolution broke out, under the lead of a Buddhist monk named Chu Yuen-chang, who proclaimed to his followers the following phrase, which aroused the Chinese nation: "It is the Chinese who should govern the Tartars, not the

Tartars the Chinese." In 1368 he succeeded in overthrowing the Mongol dynasty, and ascended the throne of China with the name of HUNG-WU, thus founding the Ming dynasty, which ruled the Celestial Empire from 1368 to 1644—a period of two hundred and seventy-six years. The sixteen Chinese Emperors belonging to the Ming dynasty were generally able sovereigns.

The Ming Dynasty.

The Golden Horde of Kipzak.

The Kipzak Empire, in the basin of the Volga, was one of the fragments of Zingis Khan's vast empire, and included Russia in Europe, taking tribute of the republic of Novgorod and of the other Russian principalities. The Kipzak Empire was bounded on the south by the Danube, the Euxine, the Caucasus and the Zagatai Empire; and on the north by the republic of Novgorod and the Kingdom of Sibir, on the Irtish. This empire included but very little of Tartary. It was at first a subordinate government under a grandson of Zingis Khan, but it soon became independent. About twenty warlike sovereigns reigned over it in succession. At the end of the thirteenth century it was converted from Deism to Mohammedanism. Its sovereign was styled the *Great Khan of the Golden Horde of Kipzak*. After several centuries it was broken into fragments, the most important of which were the Khanates of Kazan, Astrakhan, and the Crimea, or Crim Tartary.

The Zagatai Empire.

The Zagatai Empire, another fragment of Zingis Khan's vast dominion, was founded by that great conqueror's eldest son ZAGATAI, who had received the government of a territory which in 1290 included Transoxiana, or the region north of the Oxus, together with Balkh, Kashgar, Khotan, and the Punjab, or region of the Indus and its five tributaries. A part of this empire took the name of *Uzbeck*, because of the fondness of the people there for their Khan of that name. One of these Uzbeck Khans invaded Persia, and carried away four hundred camel-loads of gold and jewels, along with other valuables, giving all of it to his soldiers. The Punjab was lost to the Zagatai Empire in 1368, but the empire was extended on the north. Twenty-five sovereigns, the descendants of Zingis Khan through Zagatai, successively reigned over this empire, which lasted one hundred and seventy years, until 1402, when it was ended through dissensions among relatives whose ambition was active in expelling each other from the throne. The last sovereign of the Zagatai Empire was a monarch only in name, who held a command in Tamerlane's army. Like the Kipzak Empire, the Zagatai Empire was also converted from Deism to Islam.

The Mongol-Persian Empire.

The Mongol-Persian Empire, a third fragment of Zingis Khan's dominion, was founded by HOOLAGOO, a brother of Kublai Khan. In 1282 AHMED succeeded to the Mongol-Persian throne, being chosen thereto by the grandees; but he lost their esteem by embracing Islam, and was killed. His nephew then usurped the sovereignty. ALJAPTU,

who came to the Mongol-Persian throne in 1303, was distinguished for his love of justice and religion, which he caused to flourish throughout his dominions. He had founded the city of Sultania and made it his capital. He was succeeded in 1313 by his son Abu-said, who was disturbed by court cabals, and was poisoned by his wife Khatun in 1337. Fresh plots and disorders followed; and the nobles fortified themselves in the different provinces which they ruled, or plundered and took up arms against each other. All these petty sovereignties were finally absorbed in Tamerlane's vast Tartar dominion, of which we shall now proceed to give an account.

SECTION II.—TAMERLANE'S TARTAR EMPIRE (A. D. 1370–1405).

Tamerlane, or Timour the Lame.

Tamerlane, or Timour the Lame, a famous Tartar conqueror, who claimed to be a descendant of the great Zingis Khan, entered upon a career of conquest, and built up a Tartar Empire that vied with that of his illustrious ancestor, embracing the greater part of Central, Southern and Western Asia.

His Parentage and Birth.

A Persian writer tells us that Tamerlane's father was the wise and virtuous Emir, Tragai, and his mother was the chaste and beautiful Tekine Khatun, the Emir's lawful wife. Timour, as Tamerlane was most generally called by his Tartar countrymen, was born near Tashkend, his father's capital, in 1336, during the reign of Sultan Kazan of Zagatai.

His Horoscope.

It is said that Timour's birth had been foretold to one of his ancestors in a dream wherein eight stars appeared to shoot out of the sleeper; and the eight cast so great a splendor that it enlightened the four quarters of the globe. This was interpreted to signify that a prince of his race should be born in the eighth generation who should fill the world with the splendor of his virtues and conquests. Timour's horoscope was drawn at the moment of his birth, and predicted to him the crown and the empire, with all manner of prosperity and a numerous issue.

His Youthful Characteristics.

It is also related that Timour gave indications during his childhood that he was likely to verify the predictions of the horoscope. As soon as he had reached the age of reason something in all his actions appeared to indicate an air of sovereignty. He would talk only of thrones and crowns. His favorite diversions were such as represented the military art; and in this he disposed of the youth who attended him like a sovereign disposes of his subjects, raising those who seemed most deserving to the highest degree, and conferring the bare title of soldiers upon others. He made figures of canes to represent the enemy's

armies, and then attacked them with his troops, among whom he enforced a military discipline.

His Early Physical Exercises.

When Timour had attained a more advanced age, and was capable of applying himself to the sterner exercises of the body, he devoted himself to military science. His principal diversions were riding, racing, fencing, and the like. He was also frequently engaged in the pastime of the chase, and that was the only recreation that he took after his constant fatigues.

His Ambition and Military Life.

In these exercises Timour passed that part of his life which preceded his great and wonderful military achievements, or the period from his tenth to his twenty-fifth year. At the latter age his heart gave way to ambition, and he began to despise dangers, to win victories and to acquire the name of a great conqueror and a famous hero.

His Early Military Adventures.

Timour was driven from his inheritance, the principality of Tashkend, while yet a youth; but he distinguished himself by his bravery in several petty conflicts as an adventurer, following his fortunes from place to place. He did good service to his country by expelling from its soil a formidable army of the Getes, who had invaded it from the north. At the head of an insignificant force, aided by the stratagem of many camp-fires on the mountains, he defeated the vast army of these invaders in a desperate battle. At another time he struck terror into his foes and took a fortified city, at the head of a small body of troops whom he had ordered to tie long branches to the sides of their horses. The dust thus raised made the enemy think that Timour had a large army, and he took advantage of the dismay thus excited in the ranks of the foe by making a bold and vigorous charge. The fertilities of his expedients gained the confidence of his followers, and this with his other qualities acquired for him the strong personal affection of his troops.

Timour and Hussein.

To secure his inheritance, Timour was under the necessity of making an alliance with Hussein, a neighboring chieftain. Both encountered extreme perils in the constant wars which disturbed the empire through the feuds and the ambition of the various chiefs. Timour heroically exposed his life in every encounter, but knew as well how to command as how to fight. He underwent every vicissitude of fortune—victorious, defeated, a captive, released, wounded, a fugitive in the deserts, reappearing with a few vagabond troops, increasing his forces, welcomed in the great cities, or shut out with indignities, at one time on friendly terms, at another time at bitter feud with his ally, Hussein.

Timour and the Ant.

It is said that on one occasion, after Timour had suffered three disastrous defeats, fleeing for his life and deserted by all, he had taken refuge in a ruined building, in utter despair. Almost hopelessly despondent, Timour was brooding over his misfortunes, when his eyes caught

an ant that was striving to carry a grain to her magazine, up the opposite side of the wall. The insect failed ninety-nine times in its efforts, but accomplished its task at the hundredth attempt. The indomitable patience and perseverance of so small an insect for a paltry grain gave Timour fresh courage. He rose from the ground, braced up with new energy, a new man, hazarded another engagement and came forth victor.

His Names, Timour Lenk, or Timour the Lame, or Tamerlane.

In one of his contests he received a severe wound in the hand, and in another action he was wounded in the foot, from which circumstance he received the name of Timour Lenk, meaning Timour the Lame, which was corrupted into Tamerlane, by which name he is generally known. At length Tamerlane grew more powerful than his ally, Hussein, who lost the affection of his officers and troops through his jealousy, avarice and other bad qualities; while Tamerlane captivated the hearts of all by his valor, affability and equity.

Hussein's Overthrow and Murder.

Hussein, who became jealous and sought in every way to put Tamerlane in the wrong, finally adopted such outrageous measures that Tamerlane was obliged to declare war against him. Hussein was taken prisoner at Balkh and led to Tamerlane, who was melted to tears by the recollections of their former friendship, and could only say: "I renounce my right to his life." Some of Tamerlane's courtiers, without waiting for his words, followed Hussein out and killed him.

Temerlane as Khan.

The Khan of Zagatai finally confirmed Tamerlane in his hereditary principality of Tashkend, and assigned him a battalion of ten thousand cavalry. Soon afterward Tamerlane was elected Khan by the general council of his nation, and found himself at the head of an empire which he afterward enlarged by victories that ranked him among the most renowned conquerors, A. D. 1370.

His Virtues and Vices.

Like all semi-barbarians and great conquerors, Tamerlane displayed the highest virtues along with the most horrible vices; sublime justice along with the most atrocious oppression; winning and simple-hearted benevolence with the cruelty of a fiend; the most tender natural affection with the most revolting and hard-hearted disregard of all domestic and social ties; a deep sense of humility, dependence and piety with the utmost arrogance toward his fellow-creatures—trampling on everything that they held dear, and causing by his selfish ambition the violent deaths of millions of mankind, with more or less misery. These "scourges of God" have no orderly, proportionate and harmonious characters; and their mission is to destroy, overturn, unsettle, to reduce to chaos, so that the foundations of future progress may be laid broader, deeper and better. The elements are more diverse, embrace a greater multitude of particulars, and may thus contribute to a wider harmony and a higher order of things.

His Ambitious Aims.

Tamerlane asserted that it was neither consistent nor proper that the earth should be shared between two monarchs. His first aim was universal dominion. His second object was to live in the memory and esteem of posterity; and this appears to have been associated in his half-enlightened mind with the view of propagating Islam, which he regarded as the true religion.

An Early Exploit.

It is said that among Tamerlane's early exploits, after vainly waiting for allies who failed to join him, he fled from the hills of Samarcand into the desert with only sixty horsemen. He was overtaken and attacked by a thousand Getes, whom he repulsed with frightful slaughter, and caused his enemies to remark: "Timour is a wonderful man; fortune and the divine favor are with him." His little band being reduced to ten men, lost three more by desertion. Tamerlane wandered in the desert, was plunged in a dungeon sixty-two days, swam the Oxus and led the life of an outlaw; but adversity taught him salutary lessons.

His Meeting with Three Chiefs.

After Tamerlane had returned to his native country certain of his adherents eagerly sought him, to join him in the desert. He presented himself as a guide to three chiefs, and he described this recognition in the following words: "When their eyes fell upon me they were overwhelmed with joy, and they alighted from their horses, and they came and kneeled, and they kissed my stirrup. I also came down from my horse, and took each of them in my arms. And I put my turban on the head of the first chief; and my girdle, rich in jewels and wrought with gold, I bound on the loins of the second; and the third I clothed in my own coat. And they wept, and I wept also, and the hour of prayer was arrived, and we prayed. And we mounted our horses, and came to my dwelling; and I collected my people and made a feast."

His Conquest of Korasm, Kandahar and Persia.

Tamerlane conducted thirty-five campaigns, and placed the crowns of twenty-seven kingdoms on his head. Soon after he had been chosen Khan by the Couroultai of his nation, he annexed the dependent countries of Korasm and Kandahar to the patrimony of Zagatai, after which he turned to Persia. That unhappy country had been without a lawful sovereign since Abu-said's death, and had not witnessed peace or justice for forty years. Tamerlane conquered its petty tyrants in detail. One of them brought his peace-offering of silks, horses and jewels, each consisting of nine pieces, in accordance with the Tartar custom. There being only eight slaves in the present, the servile prince said: "I myself am the ninth." The Tartar conqueror rewarded this orientalism with a smile.

Battle of Shiraz.

In a battle under the walls of Shiraz, the valiant prince of Fars, the ancient Persia proper, at the head of three or four thousand troops, broke the main body of Tamerlane's cavalry, thirty thousand strong. Tamerlane remained near the standard with only fifteen of his guards,

where his helmet was twice struck by a cimeter, but he was not beaten down. His Mongols rallied, and were victorious after a desperate conflict. The valiant prince of Fars was slain, and his head was thrown at Tamerlane's feet. The Tartar conqueror afterward extirpated the prince's family, putting every male of that formidable princely race to death. Tamerlane advanced to the Persian Gulf, and compelled Ormuz, the island queen of commerce, to pay an annual tribute of six hundred thousand dinars of gold. He subdued the plains and valleys of the Tigris and the Euphrates, and the country as far north as the Caucasus and as far west as Mount Lebanon and the territories of the Ottoman Turks.

Tamerlane's Conquest of Ormuz and Western Asia.

In Tartary, Tamerlane crossed the Jaxartes, and annexed the broad belt of territory north of that stream to his dominions by conquering a large part of the Kipzak Empire. He also subdued Kashgar, marching into the heart of that country seven times, once almost fifteen hundred miles to the north-east of Samarcand. On that side the kingdom of the Oigurs, and that of Thibet south of it, separated Tamerlane's empire from the Ming Empire of China and from the remnant of the empire of the Mongols to the north of China.

His Conquests in Central Asia.

Tamerlane's struggle with the Kipzak Empire is interesting. Tamerlane had protected the fugitive Kipzak prince and had restored him to his throne; but ten years afterward the restored Kipzak prince forgot Tamerlane's benefits, and marched against the "usurper of the rights of the house of Zingis," as he called Tamerlane. He entered Persia on the west side of the Caspian, through the gates of Derbend, at the head of ninety thousand cavalry. On the east side of the Caspian and Aral Seas he crossed the Jaxartes with the countless hosts of Kipzak, Bulgaria, Circassia and Russia, burned Tamerlane's palace, and compelled the Tartar conqueror to struggle for Samarcand and for his life amid the snows of winter.

His Struggle with the Kipzak Prince.

After a mild expostulation and a glorious victory, Tamerlane sought revenge, and twice invaded Kipzak on the east and west side of the Caspian and the Volga with so mighty an army that thirteen miles were measured from his right to his left wing. His soldiers seldom beheld the footsteps of man during a march of five months, and they depended only on the chase for their daily subsistence.

His Formidable Invasion of Kipzak.

At length the armies of Tamerlane and the Great Khan of the Golden Horde of Kipzak encountered each other. The standard-bearer of Kipzak treacherously reversed the imperial standard, thus discouraging his troops, and giving Tamerlane the victory. In Tamerlane's words, the Great Khan of the Golden Horde of Kipzak gave the tribe of the son of Zingis Khan "to the winds of desolation." Tamerlane's victorious army burned several capitals, took a Russian prince into cap-

His Conquest of the Golden Horde of Kipzak.

tivity, terrified Moscow and Novgorod, reduced Azov to ashes, and then returned home, laden with an enormous spoil of precious furs, linens, and ingots of gold and silver, A. D. 1383.

His Invasion of India.

In 1398 Tamerlane planned an invasion of India. His troops murmured against the dangers and hardships of such a campaign, and talked with fear of the "rivers, mountains, deserts, soldiers in armor, elephants, destroyers of men." But the conqueror's frown was more terrible than all these, and Tamerlane was well aware of the real weakness and anarchy of Hindoostan. His invading army contained ninety-two squadrons of cavalry, and marched in three divisions. While crossing the Hindoo Koosh mountains, at their terrible pass, thousands of the Tartar conqueror's troops and horses perished in the snow. At five places Tamerlane was let down a precipice on a portable scaffold by means of ropes one hundred and fifty cubits long.

His Capture of Delhi.

Tamerlane crossed the Indus at Attok, and advanced by a circuitous route to the great city of Delhi, which had flourished under Mohammedan Sultans for three centuries. The weak Sultan was enticed from his strong castle and city, and came out into the plain with ten thousand cuirassiers, forty thousand foot-guards, and one hundred and twenty elephants, whose tusks were armed with sharp and pointed daggers. Tamerlane employed fire, a ditch of iron spikes and a rampart of bucklers against the enemy, to allay the uneasiness of his troops; but the Tartars soon learned to smile at their own fears, and as soon as they routed the elephants the enemy's troops disappeared from the field. Delhi was taken by Tamerlane's victorious troops, and was given up to pillage and massacre. The great Tartar conqueror advanced one hundred miles to the north-east and crossed the Ganges, and returned along the northern hills of India.

Self Immolation of the Ghebers.

During this wanton inroad into India millions of human beings perished. A city of the Ghebers, or fire-worshipers, was negotiating for its ransom; but during the delay a breach in the walls was effected, through which the ruthless Tartars entered the city. The dispersed Ghebers set fire to their own houses, threw their wives, their children and all their wealth into the flames, and perished to the last man, heroically defending themselves on the smoking ruins. Those who sought refuge in mountains and caverns were appalled at seeing wooden trunks suspended to iron chains at the entrance of their retreats, from which soldiers issued who pursued them into the darkness of their caves with relentless carnage.

Tamerlane's Wholesale Massacre of Ghebers.

Before his victory at Delhi, Tamerlane was told that his camp was filled with captives, mainly Ghebers and idolators, the garrisons of the cities he had taken, who might escape to the enemy during the battle. The fanatical conqueror ordered them to be put to death, and over a

hundred thousand wretched victims were massacred in less than an hour. The conquering Tartars obtained an immense booty by the plunder and devastation of the richest country in the world; and every Tartar soldier was loaded with diamonds and jewels, and carried off vast numbers of slaves.

His Wholesale Massacre of Christians in Georgia.

Tamerlane was called away from the further prosecution of the *Ghazi*, or "holy war," as he called it, by insurrections in Persia. After suppressing these revolts, he marched into Georgia, where he perpetrated other religious massacres, his victims there being Christians. His soldiers scoured the rocks and caverns of Georgia in pursuit of the Christians, with the same success that they had hunted down the Ghebers in India. Wearied with their murderous brutality, the Tartars finally accepted tribute, instead of exterminating the Christians. Tamerlane would have subjected all of Georgia to his sway had he not turned his attention in another direction by taking the field against the Ottoman Turkish Sultan Bajazet I.

His Destruction of Damascus and Bagdad and Massacres There.

Before marching against Bajazet I., Tamerlane invaded Syria, where he massacred hundreds of thousands of human beings and destroyed Damascus. He also took and destroyed Bagdad. Tamerlane ordered each of his soldiers to bring him a head, and caused a pyramid of ninety thousand human heads to be erected on the ruins of Bagdad. This was in accordance with his custom during his career. In one instance he caused four thousand soldiers with their horses to be cast into the moat of a city that he had taken, and these were all buried alive. In an expedition against the Getes he once took two thousand prisoners, and caused them to be heaped upon one another alive, with bricks and mortar between them, to construct towers or pyramids. These horrible scenes of cruelty were frequent with him.

Other Massacres.

His Massacre at Ispahan.

When the Persian city of Ispahan, which had a population of a million, revolted against Tamerlane, he ordered all the inhabitants to be massacred, except such as had saved the lives of some of his soldiers. To insure the execution of this atrocious decree, he required each company of his army to furnish him a specific number of human heads. His troops bought these heads from each other to finish their contingent. So many were slaughtered that finally the heads were sold for a trifling sum. The Divan's register states that seventy thousand heads were obtained in this manner, and were used with stones and mortar as building materials for towers or pyramids in different parts of the city.

His Massacres at Aleppo and Damascus.

At Tamerlane's capture of the Syrian city of Aleppo the streets of that city streamed with blood, and reëchoed to the shrieks of violated maidens and the cries of mothers and children, while towers or pyramids of human heads were also constructed. At Tamerlane's capture

of Damascus all the inhabitants of that city were massacred, except one family and a colony of artificers sent to Samarcand. Ten millions of gold were exacted from Damascus, and the city was reduced to ashes.

Games and Festivals for His Soldiers.

But Tamerlane was not altogether savage. A certain historian says that he greatly delighted to see his soldiers enjoying themselves in games and festivals for whole days together after a victory. He would then reward his generals with vests of honor and jewels, warmly interest himself in their happiness, be present at their weddings, and receive their felicitations with marks of sensibility in any prosperity which attended himself. He gave a splendid feast at his capital, Samarcand, when his sister congratulated him on the birth of a grandson. The tents occupied a space of six miles; and his pavilion, which was placed near a canopy supported by forty columns, was as spacious as a palace. When all was ready Tamerlane advanced, with the crown encircling his brow and the scepter in his hand, and seated himself on the throne erected in the middle of the tent and ornamented with precious stones, shining with splendor. The two sides of the throne were filled by a vast number of the most beautiful females of Asia, shaded with veils of gold brocade studded with jewels. Two rows were occupied with musicians; and nine stewards holding golden maces preceded the courses, and were followed by cupbearers holding decanters containing various kinds of wine and brandy. The many lovely women, whose braided hair extended to the ground, gave additional luster to the brilliant assemblage. The festival ended with shows and dances.

His Brilliant Feast at Samarcand.

Tamerlane and the Ottoman Turkish Sultan Bajazet I.

While the Tartar arms had been employed in Syria and Mesopotamia, after the destruction of the Ottoman Turkish Sultan's city of Sivas, Sultan Bajazet I., who had been besieging Constantinople, had two years to prepare for the final encounter with Tamerlane. In Tamerlane's first expedition the Tartar conqueror and the Ottoman Sultan had addressed a great deal of princely billingsgate and bravado to each other. Tamerlane called Bajazet I. "nothing but a Turkman," and himself a Turk, bidding him "be wise in time, reflect, repent, and avert the thunder of our vengeance." He exclaimed: "Thou ant! why wilt thou seek to provoke elephants? They will trample thee under their feet!" Bajazet replied still more indecorously, and made domestic allusions considered the most degrading insults and unpardonable offenses. The two barbarian conquerors were very much alike in their arrogance and in their ruthless ambition.

Their Rival Armies.

Sultan Bajazet's army numbered four hundred thousand infantry and cavalry, among whom were forty thousand Janizaries, a large force of national cavalry, twenty thousand European cuirassiers clad in black and impenetrable armor, troops of Asia Minor, and a colony of Tartars whom Tamerlane had driven from Kipzak. This army was

posted in the plain near Sivas. Tamerlane moved through Armenia from the Araxes. His boldness was secured by the wisest precautions. His speed was guided by order and discipline. The flying squadrons which marked his road and preceded his standard diligently explored the woods, the mountains and the rivers. He moved on, marched into the very heart of the Ottoman Empire, and besieged Angora. Sultan Bajazet I. hastened to oppose him. The impatient rivals engaged in battle in the plains around the city of Angora, and after a mighty struggle Tamerlane was victorious, July 28, 1402.

Battle of Angora.

Tamerlane owed his signal victory to himself, the genius of the moment, and the military discipline of thirty years. He had improved the tactics, without violating the manners of the Tartars, whose force still consisted in the missile weapons and the rapid evolutions of a numerous cavalry. The mode of attack was the same, from a single troop to a great army. A foremost line advanced to the charge, and was supported by the squadrons of the great vanguard in proper order. The general's eye watched over the field, and, at his command, the front and rear of the right and left wings successively advanced in their respective divisions, and in a direct or oblique line. The enemy was pressed by eighteen or twenty attacks, each of which afforded a chance of victory. But in the battle of Angora the main body itself was supported, on the flanks and in the rear, by the bravest squadrons of the reserve, under the command of Tamerlane's sons and grandsons.

Tamerlane's Genius in that Battle and His Brilliant Victory.

Sultan Bajazet I. displayed the qualities of a soldier and a chief on that memorable day, but his genius was no match for his invincible adversary, and from various causes most of his troops failed him at the decisive moment. The European cuirassiers, who formed part of his right wing, charged with faithful hearts and irresistible arms; but these men of iron were soon broken by an artful flight and a headlong pursuit. The Janizaries alone, without cavalry or missile weapons, were encompassed by a circle of Tartars; but their valor was at length overcome by heat, thirst, and the superior numbers of their foes. The unfortunate Sultan Bajazet I., afflicted with the gout in his hands and feet, was transported from the field on the fleetest of his horses. He was relentlessly pursued and finally taken prisoner by Tamerlane's victorious troops.

Bajazet's Valiant Conduct, Defeat and Capture.

Tamerlane was playing chess with his son when the captive Turkish Sultan was brought to his tent, and he kept his illustrious prisoner standing at the door until the game was finished. Bajazet I. was then courteously received and treated with princely generosity by his Tartar conqueror; but when he afterwards attempted to escape he was loaded with chains and thrust into an iron cage, against the bars of which he dashed out his brains.

His Captivity and Suicide.

Tamerlane's Plunder of Brusa.

After the battle of Angora the Turkish kingdom of Anatolia submitted to Tamerlane, who enacted his usual scenes of rapine and destruction on every side. The spoils of the palace and city of Brusa were enormous, but one of Sultan Bajazet's sons carried the royal treasury into Europe, and the inhabitants had fled. The buildings, which were mainly of wood, were burned. Tamerlane took Smyrna by storm, after an obstinate defense by the Knights of St. John, and massacred all the garrison, beheading the Christian heroes on board two great ships in the harbor. The two straits of the Dardanelles and the Bosphorus were defended by the Turks and the Christians, who combined in this emergency to prevent Tamerlane from crossing over into Europe; but he was master of all Western and Central Asia, from the Archipelago on the west to the Ganges and the frontiers of Mongolia on the east.

His Capture and Massacre of Smyrna.

His Vast Empire.

His Tributaries.

Solyman, Bajazet's son—then King of Roumania—and the Eastern Roman Emperor both paid tribute and swore allegiance to the conquering Tamerlane. The Sultan of Egypt submitted, and coin was struck and prayers were said for the great Tartar conqueror at Cairo. The indefatigable Tamerlane, in his camp at Smyrna, now meditated the conquest of China, and thus making himself master of the East of Asia as well as of the western portion of that great continent. The fanatical Tartar conqueror hoped to atone for the Moslem blood that he had shed, and to smooth his way to the joys of Paradise, by forcing the Chinese to embrace Islam, by filling China with Mohammedan mosques and drenching that land with heathen blood. While he was still in Asia Minor he sent pioneers beyond the Jaxartes to subdue the pagan Kalmucks and Mongols, to found cities and magazines in the desert, and to open a way through Central Asia to China.

His Designs on China.

His Raids in Tartary.

His Rest in Samarcand.

Tamerlane returned to Samarcand after his triumph over the Turkish Sultan; and there, during a brief rest, he displayed his magnificence and power, listened to the complaints of his subjects, distributed a just proportion of rewards and punishments, employed his wealth in erecting palaces and temples, and received ambassadors from Egypt, Arabia, India, Tartary, Russia and Spain, A. D. 1404, 1405.

Marriage of Six of His Grandsons.

Tamerlane now occupied himself with the marriage of six of his grandsons; and, as this was considered an act of religion, no less than of paternal tenderness, the pomp of the Saracen Khalifs was revived in these nuptials. On this occasion the nobility and the people of Asia crowded to Samarcand. The nuptials were celebrated in the gardens of Carighul, decorated with a countless number of tents and pavilions, displaying the luxury of a great capital and the spoils of a triumphant army. Entire forests were cut down to supply fuel for the kitchens. The plain was spread with pyramids of meat and vases of every liquor,

to which thousands of guests were courteously invited. The orders of the state and the nations of the world, including the European ambassadors, were marshaled at the Great Khan's banquet. Illuminations and masquerades testified the public joy. The trades of Samarcand passed in review; and every trade was emulous to execute some quaint device, some marvelous pageant, with the materials of its peculiar art, adding to the splendor. After the marriage contracts had been ratified by the cadis, the bridegrooms and their brides retired to their nuptial chambers. In accordance with the Asiatic fashion they were dressed and undressed nine times; and at each change of apparel pearls and rubies were showered on their heads, and they were left to their attendants with surprising indifference. A general indulgence was proclaimed; and every law was relaxed, and every pleasure permitted. The Great Khan's proclamation was in these words: "This is the season of feasts, of pleasure and of rejoicing. No one is allowed to dispute or reprimand. Let not the rich exult over the poor, nor the powerful over the weak. Let no one ask his neighbor, Why hast thou acted thus?" The festival lasted two months, during which the people were free and the sovereign was idle.

Splendor of this Festival.

But after these two months of festivity Tamerlane returned to the cares of government and war. His standard was unfurled for the invasion of China. The Emirs reported two hundred thousand men under arms, and these were the select and veteran soldiers of Persia and Turkestan. Their baggage and provisions were transported on five hundred wagons and an immense train of horses and camels. The troops were prepared for a long absence, as it required six months for a caravan journey from Samarcand to Pekin. It is said that Tamerlane had raised an army of one million two hundred thousand troops for the conquest of China.

Tamerlane's March for China.

Tamerlane's impatience was not retarded by age or the rigor of winter. He mounted on horseback, crossed the Jaxartes on the ice, marched three hundred miles from his capital, and pitched his last camp in the vicinity of Otrar, "where he was expected by the angel of death." He was seized with a fever, the progress of which was accelerated by fatigue and by the indiscreet use of ice water; and the great Tartar Khan who had conquered half of Asia died in the seventieth year of his age, A. D. 1405—thirty-five years after he had ascended the throne of Zagatai. His death put an end to his enterprise, his armies were disbanded, and China was saved from another great Tartar conquest.

The March Ended by His Death.

Tamerlane was fond of chess, and invented a new game. He was likewise fond of reading, particularly history. His custom was to converse awhile every evening with learned and literary men, whose society he prized. He looked after all details, leaving to others nothing that

His Tastes, Pastimes, Memory, Etc.

he himself was able to attend to. He had so retentive a memory that those who knew the vastness of his affairs were astonished at his minute questionings as to different circumstances and persons on revisiting the great variety of places through which he passed. He neglected no opportunity to do honor to the tomb of a saint or to a relic, either from policy to secure the veneration of his subjects for himself, or from a strong native tinge of superstition in his own mind.

His Personal Appearance.

Tamerlane was corpulent and robust in person, and was rather tall and well formed. He had a high forehead, a large head, a ruddy and fair complexion, a long beard, broad shoulders, thick fingers, long legs, eyes full of fire, a loud and piercing voice, and an engaging air. His right hand and right foot were lame from wounds. His biographer says: "Never a prince carried a more majestic and terrible air in his wrath, nor yet a more sweet and agreeable one when he was pleased to bestow his favors."

His Virtues and Good Results of His Reign.

Even in old age Tamerlane retained a sound mind, a strong body, a great degreee of firmness and an unshaken constancy. He had the greatest veneration for Zingis Khan, and the judicial formula which he adopted was: "By virtue of the laws of Zingis Khan." Tamerlane loved the truth without disguise, even if it was to his disadvantage. The motto of his seal was: "I am simple and sincere." Neither prosperity nor adversity disturbed his equality of soul. Though he was a scourge to mankind, and though his ambition and cruelty brought twelve million human beings to violent deaths, he put an end to the anarchy and rapine to which Asia had been a prey at his accession; and it is said that under his vigorous and prosperous rule a child might carry a purse of gold from one end of his dominions to the other without fear or without being molested.

Incapacity of His Posterity.

But the blessings of Tamerlane's administration ended with his death. Not one of his thirty-six sons and seventeen daughters and their children was found equal to the task of governing the empire which he had founded. His son Charoc alone maintained the glory of the empire for a time; but after his death there was a renewal of those scenes of darkness and bloodshed that have involved the destinies of Tartary from time immemorial. In less than a century after Tamerlane's death Transoxiana and Persia—Turan and Iran—were ravaged by the Uzbecks and the Turkomans.

Baber's Conquest of India.

Tamerlane's race was saved from extinction by his descendant in the fifth generation, the hero Baber, who fled before the Uzbeck conquerors of Turkestan, and himself effected the conquest of Hindoostan in 1525, founding an empire which under his successors, the *Grand Moguls*, embraced all of Hindoostan, Afghanistan and Beloochistan. The history of this Mongol, or Mogul, Empire in India will be related shortly.

MAP OF
EUROPE
A.D. 1400
By I. S. Clare
SCALE OF MILES
0 25 50 100 200 300 400
ICELAND
Reikiavik
Mt Hecla
FAROE ISLES
SHETLAND ISLES
ORKNEY ISLES
HEBRIDES ISLES
ATLANTIC OCEAN
NORTH SEA
BALTIC SEA
GULF OF BOTHNIA
GULF OF FINLAND
EDINBURGH
Otterburn or Chevy Chase
DUBLIN
LONDON
Stirling
Perth
Dundee
Carlisle
Lancaster
Chester
Lincoln
York
Norwich
Cambridge
Oxford
Limerick
Waterford
Wexford
Kilkenny
Dunbar
Durham
Newcastle
Nevill's Cross
Beverley
Hereford
Worcester
Gloucester
Bristol
Exeter
Salisbury
Winchester
Southampton
Canterbury
Rochester
Dover
Sussex
Kent
Essex
Suffolk
Norfolk
Cambridge
Lincoln
Nottingham
Derby
Stafford
Shrewsbury
Leicester
Warwick
Coventry
Oxford
Reading
Wilton
Dorset
Somerset
Devon
Cornwall
Wales
Anglesea
Caernarvon
Merioneth
Montgomery
Radnor
Brecknock
Glamorgan
Monmouth
Pembroke
Cardigan
Carmarthen
Flint
Denbigh
Ireland
Connaught
Ulster
Leinster
Munster
Meath
Kildare
Tipperary
Cork
Kerry
Galway
Mayo
Sligo
Donegal
Antrim
Down
Armagh
Tyrone
Fermanagh
Londonderry
Tyrconnel
Clare
Limerick
Waterford
Wexford
Kilkenny

Longitude from Greenwich
East 70 75
65
60
55
50
45
40
35
30
ARCTIC OCEAN
NORWAY
WHITE SEA
PRINCIPALITY OF NOVOGOROD
GOLDEN HORDE
GREAT BULGARIA
BASCHKIRT
KINGDOM OF SIBIR TURAN
USBECKS
CZERESNISSES-ORI
WJÆTKA
PERMIA
Lake Onega
Lake Ilmen
NOVGOROD
Kasan
Astrakhan
CASPIAN SEA
CHORASM EMPIRE
BLACK SEA
SEA OF AZOV
CIRCASSIA
DAGHESTAN
GEORGIA
TIFLIS
TREBIZOND
CONSTANTINOPLE
ADRIANOPLE
TURKISH EMPIRE
MESOPOTAMIA
KURDISTAN
PERSIA
ELBURZ MTS.
IRAK ALDSCHEMI
IRAK ARABI
KHUSISTAN
Persian Gulf
ARABIA
CYPRUS
Rhodes
To Knights of St. John
Dead Sea
Jerusalem
Damascus
Aleppo
Antioch
Bagdad
Mosul
Diarbekir
Erzerum
Kelat
Lake Urumiyah
Hamadan
Holwan
Tigris River
Euphrates River
Aras River
Don River
Dnieper River
Dwina River
Petchora River
Obe River
Ural River
Jemba
Dschem
Kasan
Kursk
Minsk
Witepsk
Smolensk
Moscow
Vladimir
Suzdal
Rostow
Jaroslav
Nizni Novgorod
Riasan
Tula
Kaluga
Orel
Tver
Pskov
Ladoga
Lake Peipus
Lake Wenern
Abo
Viborg
Nystad
Helsingfors
Reval
Riga
Memel
Konigsberg
Dantzic
Posen
Breslau
Cracow
Lemberg
Jassy
Moldavia
Wallachia
Bessarabia
Crimea
Cherson
Varna
Sinope
Amasia
Angora
Brussa
Smyrna
Ephesus
Adana
Tarsus
Aleppo
Hama
Emesa
Tripoli
Beyrout
Sidon
Sur (Tyre)
Acre
Baalbec
Damascus
Bozrah
Jerusalem
Joppa
Ascalon
Gaza
Damietta
Rosetta
Alexandria
CAIRO
EGYPT
KINGDOM OF THE CIRCASSIAN MAMELUKES
40 East 45

CHAPTER XXXI.

MODERN MOHAMMEDAN EMPIRES.

SECTION I.—RISE OF THE OTTOMAN TURKISH EMPIRE (A. D. 1280–1566).

Solyman, the Turkish Chieftain.

Solyman, the chief of a Turkish tribe called *Oguz*, perhaps the same as the ancient Oigurs and the modern Ogres, had attached himself to the fortunes of Korasm. When the Korasmian power was overthrown by the victorious Mongol hordes under Zingis Khan, Solyman fled westward with his followers, taking with them their wives and children, their sheep and cattle. They first sought an asylum in Armenia, but after a residence of seven years in that country they returned to their native land. Their leader Solyman was drowned in crossing the Euphrates, and his four sons divided the leadership and sovereignty of the tribe between them.

Orthogrul's Migration to Asia Minor.

Many of the tribe dispersed into the deserts, but about four hundred families remained attached to Orthogrul, one of Solyman's four sons. Orthogrul immediately marched westward to seek his fortune in Asia Minor, where the chieftains who ruled the fragments of the dismembered Seljuk Turkish dominions were harassing each other with mutual wars, and could not be induced to unite against the Mongols or the Crusaders. While the Korasmian Turkish tribe under Orthogrul was on its journey to Asia Minor it fell in with two armies engaged in a fierce struggle. Orthogrul joined the weaker party, and thus changed the fortune of the day. The victorious chief was Aladdin, a Seljuk chieftain, who rewarded Orthogrul for his aid by the present of a rich silk robe, which was a gift of honor in the East, and also with the grant of a mountainous district on the frontiers of Bithynia and Phrygia, where there was sufficient pasturage for the flocks and herds of the nomad followers of Orthogrul.

His Conquests There.

The first settlement of Orthogrul's tribe was a camp of four hundred tents at Surgut, on the banks of the river Sanjar, on the frontier of the Eastern Empire, A. D. 1280. Orthogrul made constant raids into the Byzantine territories; and, as the Seljuk Sultan of Iconium had

appointed him commander-in-chief of his armies, he maintained and extended his conquests in that quarter for half a century.

Othman I., Founder of the Ottoman Empire, A. D. 1299–1326.

Othman I., or Osman I., the youngest of Orthogrul's three sons, gave his name to this Turkish tribe, which was thereafter known as the *Ottoman Turks;* and he is considered the founder of the Ottoman Empire, which has existed for six centuries and has been steadily declining for the last two centuries. On the death of his father, Othman was chosen his successor, in preference to his two elder brothers, because of his superior bravery and enterprise, A. D. 1299.

His Conquests.

Othman I. was in high favor with Aladdin II., the last Seljuk Sultan of Iconium, who gave him a castle and additional territory, and granted him the privilege of holding as his own any Christian states that he might conquer. The young Emir of the Ottoman Turks profited by this permission, and gradually extended his conquests on all sides until he was master of a large extent of territory. The neighboring Emirs grew jealous of the growing power of Othman I., and they contrived many stratagems to destroy him.

Othman I., and the Apostate Greek.

On the death of the Seljuk Turkish Sultan Aladdin II. of Iconium, without children, his dominions were seized and divided by his Emirs. Nearly all of Bithynia came into the possession of Othman I. He was fortunate in obtaining the friendship of a young Greek who espoused the Moslem faith to please his patron, and who instructed the Turkish Emir in the art of government. This renegade Greek Christian was the ancestor of the family of the Michaelogi, so frequently conspicuous in Turkish annals. Othman I. was chiefly indebted for the supremacy which he speedily obtained to the information which he received from this apostate Greek. His proximity to Constantinople opened to him a wide field of enterprise, and the civil wars between the elder and younger Andronícus, which then distracted the Eastern Empire, left the Asiatic subjects of the Empire to their own feeble resources, in consequence of which they fell an easy prey to the first invaders who attacked their dominions.

Othman I., Makes Brusa His Capital.

The Christian princes of Asia Minor, alarmed at the progress of Othman I., united their forces and sought to crush the rising power of the ambitious Turk by one decisive effort; but Othman I. gained the victory in a battle on the frontiers of Phrygia and Bithynia, and took Prusa, the ancient capital of Bithynia, and made it his capital, slightly altering its name to *Brusa*, which it retains at the present day. Othman's policy was equal to his military skill, and what he won by his valor he secured by wise and salutary regulations. He reconciled his Christian subjects to his government by his impartial administration of justice and mercy, and many who fled before his arms returned to enjoy safety and repose under his powerful protection.

His Good Rule.

Orkhan, A. D. 1326–1360.

Othman I. died in 1326, and was succeeded by his son ORKHAN, who prosecuted his father's ambitious designs with vigor. He defeated the Christians under the Eastern Emperor Andronícus III., captured Nice and Nicomedía, and extended the Ottoman dominion to the Hellespont. During the civil war which distracted the Eastern Empire after the death of Andronícus III., concerning the regency, John Cantacuzene solicited the aid of the Turkish Emir against the Empress Anne, and secured his friendship and assistance by giving him his daughter Theodora in marriage. Orkhan aided John Cantacuzene with a force of ten thousand Turkish cavalry, which, under the command of his son Solyman, crossed the Hellespont in 1358, and obtained possession of Gallipoli.

His Conquests in Asia Minor.

His Conquests in Thrace.

The admission of these Turkish auxiliaries into Europe gave a deep and mortal wound to the Eastern Empire, which succeeding Emperors vainly endeavored to heal. The Ottoman Turks, as allies of John Cantacuzene, seized the fortresses of Thrace, and held on to the most important of those strongholds, even after their restitution was demanded and a ransom paid therefor; and Gallipoli, the key of the Hellespont, was peopled by a Turkish colony.

Turkish Colony at Gallipoli.

Orkhan's Supremacy in Asia Minor.

While Solyman was securing a foothold for the Ottoman Turks in Europe, his father had compelled many of the neighboring Emirs, by force or fraud, to seek his protection and to acknowledge his supremacy. In the midst of his triumphs he suffered a misfortune in the death of his son, who was killed by a fall from his horse while hunting. Orkhan did not long survive this loss, and died in 1360.

Orkhan and His Army.

Orkhan is extolled by the Turks for his justice, clemency, and liberality to the poor. He adorned the city of Brusa, his capital, with a splendid mosque, a hospital and an academy. He was the first of the Turkish sovereigns who assigned regular pay to the troops while they were on duty. There was a great variety of costume and weapons in the Ottoman armies at that period. Some of the Turkish soldiers wore iron helmets, and coats of armor made of felt or cloth, quilted and stuffed with cotton, with shoulder and neck pieces of iron. Gunpowder was then scarcely known.

Amurath I., A. D. 1360–1389.

On the death of Orkhan, in 1360, his son, AMURATH I., ascended the Ottoman Turkish throne, and became one of the most famous of Turkish sovereigns. He wielded his father's cimeter with terrible effect. He carried his arms into Europe, overran all of Thrace, and made Adrianople the capital of the rising Ottoman Empire. He was recalled from his European conquests by disturbances in Asia Minor.

Aladdin's Revolt and Overthrow.

Aladdin, the Seljuk Turkish Emir of Caramania, who had married Amurath's daughter, and who was the most powerful of the Turkish chieftains in that region, had taken advantage of his father-in-law's

absence to invade his Asiatic territories. Amurath I. hastened to repel his son-in-law's aggression. The two armies engaged in battle on the plains of Dorylæum, and Aladdin fled after a stubborn conflict, taking refuge in the city of Iconium. He was pardoned at his wife's intercession, and his possessions were restored to him by his father-in-law.

Amurath's Conquests in Europe.

Amurath I. now devoted his entire energies to the extension of the Ottoman dominion in Europe, which already extended within sight of the capital of the Eastern Roman Empire. Amurath I. next subdued the Slavonic nations of Bulgaria, Servia, Bosnia and Albania.

Origin of the Janizaries.

From the multitudes of his Christian captives Amurath I. selected the strongest and most beautiful youths, and caused them to be trained for his service. They became the famous body-guard of the Turkish Sultans, and were called *Janizaries*. They were reared in the Mohammedan faith in early childhood, and were treated with great favor by the Sultan, so that they became his most devoted subjects. They constituted the flower of the Turkish army, and were considered the most formidable body of troops in the world.

Their Military Education.

In the military colleges in which they were instructed in the Moslem religion they were likewise trained in the Turkish military discipline. In order to increase their number, a law was promulgated that the Christian subjects of the Sultan should give up all their male children born in every fifth year, to be educated in the military schools, where they were taught to speak the Turkish language, to shoot with the bow and to wrestle. As they grew to manhood some were appointed to attend the Sultan and guard the palace. The rest were formed into companies, and constituted a disciplined army.

Origin of Their Name.

They were called *Janizaries*, from a dervish, whom the Sultan ordered to bless and consecrate the new army. As they were drawn up in order, this dervish threw the sleeve of his gown over the foremost soldier's head, and said: "Let them be called *Janizaries*—a word signifying *new soldiers*. May their countenances be ever bright, their hands victorious and their swords keen. May their spears hang always over the heads of their enemies, and wherever they go may they return with a shining face."

Their Military Costume.

The Janizaries wore long gowns and tunics, which were common among the Turks. They also wore a red cloth cap, the back of which was formed like a sleeve, and hung down behind, in memory of the dervish from whom they received their name. When they were on duty the gown of the Janizaries was changed for a jacket, which was worn over large trowsers. Their boots were of red leather. All of them wore long beards, except the cavalry, who shaved their chins and wore mustaches. All the Turks from the time of Othman I. shaved their heads, with the exception of a single lock on the crown. This custom

has given adequate employment to the barbers, who are very numerous in all the Turkish towns.

Turkish Land System.

The Turkish institutions were well calculated to nourish the military spirit. The laws of Mohammed make every true Mussulman a soldier, and a third of all the conquered land belonged to the army. In the time to which we here allude the Turkish conquests had become so extensive that every Turk held an estate of his own directly from the Sultan, who now claimed a right over all property. He granted these lands under a kind of feudal title, each proprietor being obliged to keep a horse and a number of men for military service, in proportion to the size of his estate.

Tenants and Landlords.

The lands were usually tilled by the conquered people, mainly Greeks, who paid a certain proportion of their produce—generally one-tenth—to their landlords. This practice was so general that a Turkish soldier would not accept land in a province where the population had been exterminated or driven out, as the people were more valuable than the land. These estates were not hereditary, and the Sultan might at his pleasure take them away from the holder.

Battle of Cossovo.

At length the Servians, Bosnians and Bulgarians revolted against Amurath I., and were aided by the Hungarians and the Wallachians. Amurath I. took the field against his enemies, and a terrible battle was fought at Cossovo, in Servia, in 1389. The conflict was long doubtful, until the Turks, by pretending to give way, threw the Christian ranks into disorder. A frightful slaughter ensued, and the allied Christian hosts fled, leaving the field to the victorious Ottomans. The Servian prince Lazarus, who had instigated the revolt, was among the slain. But the triumph of Amurath I. was cut short in a most unexpected manner. As he was walking over the battlefield he stopped to look at some wounded men, when one of them, a fierce Croat, among the Hungarian wounded, just breathing his last, made a sudden plunge at the Turkish sovereign, and with a short sword which he still held in his hand he gave Amurath I. a mortal wound, causing almost instant death.

Amurath's Victory and Death.

Sultan Bajazet I, A. D. 1389–1402.

Amurath I. was succeeded by his son Bajazet I., who secured himself on the Turkish throne by murdering his brother, an unnatural custom which became the settled policy of his successors. Bajazet I. was the first of Ottoman rulers who assumed the title of *Sultan*. He was ferocious and cruel by nature, and crushed all the petty Turkish Emirs of Asia Minor, either putting them to death or driving them into exile.

His Cruelties.

His Conquests.

During the whole of his reign Bajazet I. was incessantly engaged in wars in Asia and Europe, and he was named *Ilderim*, "Lightning," from the rapidity and energy of his movements. His victories in Europe left to the Greek Emperor very little but his capital, which was

several times besieged by the Turkish armies. Bajazet I. secured uninterrupted communication between his European and Asiatic dominions by stationing a fleet of galleys at Gallipoli, so that he was able to command the Hellespont and to intercept the expeditions sent from Western Europe to the relief of Constantinople.

Battle of Nicopolis.

Bajazet I. filled Europe with terror, and made a strenuous effort to conquer Hungary. All Western Europe sent aid to Hungary, whose cause was that of all Christendom; but the great warrior Sultan defeated the allied Christian army of one hundred thousand men under the command of King Sigismund of Hungary and Duke John the Fearless of Burgundy in the bloody battle of Nicopolis, on the Danube, in Bulgaria, in 1396.

Bajazet's Siege of Constantinople.

Sultan Bajazet I. invariably treated the Greek Emperors as his vassals. He enclosed the Eastern Empire, which by this time consisted of but little more than Constantinople and its suburbs, by surrounding it on all sides with his extensive dominions; and the capture of the Byzantine capital was only a question of time. Bajazet I. took advantage of the death of John Palæologus I. and the accession of Manuel II. to the Byzantine throne to claim Constantinople as his own capital, and when his demand was rejected he besieged the city, which would have speedily fallen into his possession had he not been called to Asia Minor to save his dominions there from falling into the power of the great Tartar conqueror Tamerlane.

Tamerlane's Invasion of Asia Minor.

The Seljuk Turkish Emirs who had been driven from Asia Minor by Sultan Bajazet's usurpations fled to Turkestan and found refuge at Samarcand, Tamerlane's capital. These refugee Emirs solicited the assistance of the great Tartar chieftain to recover their dominions. Tamerlane at first refused to interfere with the Ottoman Turkish Sultan in his pious task of humbling the Christians and extending Islam; but he was at length persuaded to aid the fugitive Emirs.

Tamerlane's Demand Rejected by Bajazet I.

Tamerlane sent an ambassador to Sultan Bajazet I. to demand the restoration of the exiled Emirs to their respective possessions. He also required that the Ottoman Sultan should become his vassal, and that the Sultan should testify his submission by substituting the name of Tamerlane for his own upon the Turkish coinage and in the public prayers in the Ottoman dominions. The haughty Turkish Sultan, who acknowledged none as his suzerain or superior, rejected the great Tartar Khan's degrading demand with scorn, hurling his defiance in the most insulting terms that his pride and indignation could dictate. Bajazet I. and Tamerlane were equally confident of success, and each prepared for the decisive struggle.

Manual Palæologus, the reigning Greek Emperor at Constantinople, who was then engaged in a civil war with his nephew who claimed the

Byzantine throne, proposed terms of peace to the Turkish Sultan. Bajazet eagerly embraced the proposal; and a treaty of peace was accordingly concluded, by which one of the streets of Constantinople was appropriated for the residence of Turkish merchants, who were permitted to carry on their trade with the Genoese and the Venetians. A mosque was also erected for the Turkish residents in the Byzantine capital at the Byzantine Emperor's expense, and they were allowed to have a cadi among them to settle their differences according to the Mohammedan laws. All these terms of the treaty were fulfilled.

Bajazet's Treaty of Peace with the Eastern Emperor.

The progress of Tamerlane's fierce barbarian warriors was irresistible. They overran the greater part of Asia Minor with scarcely any resistance; and, before Sultan Bajazet I. could lead his army to the scene of action, most of his Asiatic dominions had been ravaged with fire and sword by the fierce Tartar invaders. At the capture of Sivas, the ancient Sebaste, the bravest of the Turkish garrison were buried alive by the ferocious victors.

Tamerlane's Conquest of the Turkish Dominions in Asia Minor.

Finally the armies of Bajazet I. and Tamerlane encountered each other on the plains of the city of Angora, the ancient Ancyra, in Galatia; and after a desperate and bloody battle Sultan Bajazet I. was defeated and taken prisoner, July 28, 1402, and was confined in a cage by his Tartar conqueror, where he dashed out his brains; as already related.

Battle of Angora.

Bajazet's Suicide.

Bajazet I. had five sons. Of these, Mustapha was slain on the bloody field of Angora; Solyman escaped from Tamerlane's pursuing cavalry, fled to Adrianople, and preserved the Ottoman power in Europe; Musa retained the sovereignty of the small kingdom of Anatolia, in Asia Minor, having Brusa for its capital; Isa reigned over a small territory in the vicinity of Angora, Sinopé and the Black Sea; and Mohammed retained the government of Amasia, which his father had assigned to him.

His Five Sons.

Ten years of civil war ensued between these five brothers, A. D. 1403–1413, and this period is known in the Turkish annals as an interregnum. Solyman drove Musa from his throne, and united the governments of Adrianople and Brusa for a time; but Solyman was afterwards surprised by Musa in his capital, and was overtaken and slain while fleeing toward Constantinople. Musa and Isa both fell before the valor and policy of their younger brother, who thus reunited the Ottoman dominions under his own scepter, and was recognized by the entire Turkish nation as Sultan Mohammed I.

Their Civil Wars.

Sultan Mohammed I., A. D. 1413–1421.

The eight years of the reign of Mohammed I. were peaceful, and were passed in the consolidation of his power and in restoring the reign of law which had been overthrown by the civil war. The only disturbance was by an impostor who pretended to be Mustapha, that son

Overthrow of the Impostor Mustapha.

of Bajazet I. who was killed at Angora, but whom the impostor pretended had escaped alive from that fatal field. The impostor's pretensions were supported by the Wallachians, but Sultan Mohammed I. routed the Wallachians and forced them to pay an annual tribute, while the impostor sought refuge at Constantinople.

Kind Treatment of the Christian Ambassadors by Sultan Mohammed I.

Mohammed I. faithfully observed his friendly engagements with the Eastern Empire during his entire reign. His treatment of the Christian ambassadors from Servia, Wallachia, Bulgaria and Greece showed his earnest desire to cultivate a good understanding with his neighbors. These ambassadors were permitted to eat at the Sultan's table, and after being entertained with great kindness and hospitality they were dismissed by Mohammed I., who addressed them in these words: "Tell your masters that I offer them peace, that I accept of that which they offer me, and I hope that the God of peace will punish those who violate it." His last care was to provide two able counselors to guide the youth of his eldest son Amurath, and he consigned his two youngest sons to the guardianship of the Greek Emperor Manuel II.

Sultan Amurath II., A. D. 1421–1451.

Mohammed I. died in 1421, and was succeeded on the Turkish throne by his eldest son Amurath II., whose reign was soon disturbed by the impostor who had disturbed the preceding reign. The impostor's pretensions were supported by the Greek Emperor Manuel II., and his career was successful for a time. The army of Sultan Amurath II., commanded by his Grand Vizier, Bajazet, was defeated, and the Grand Vizier himself was slain. The pretended Mustapha entered Adrianople in triumph, and seized the vast treasures which Amurath II. had collected in that city. He passed a short time in riotous pleasures, but was soon aroused from his revels by the Sultan's approach at the head of an army. The impostor's career was ended after a short campaign, and Mustapha was deserted by his friends and ended his life on the scaffold.

The Impostor Mustapha's Overthrow and Execution.

The Sultan's Brother's Revolt and Execution.

The Greek Emperor raised up another claimant for the Ottoman throne in the person of the brother of Sultan Amurath II., a child of only six years, who had escaped from Amurath's hands when his other brother was murdered. His standard was set up at Nice, but Sultan Amurath II. soon obtained possession of that city, and caused his little brother to be strangled with the bowstring.

Revolts in Asia Minor.

Amurath II. renewed the attack upon Constantinople, but retired after a siege of two months. He was a sovereign of singular moderation and justice for an Ottoman Turk, and preferred the repose of private life to the cares of sovereignty. His reign was perpetually disturbed by the rebellions of the Emirs of Asia Minor, and by the invasions of the Hungarians under John Hunniyades. The Emirs were easily quelled, but the Hungarians proved a more formidable foe.

Hungarian Invasions.

MOSQUE OF ST. SOPHIA

Exterior and Interior

Abdication of Amurath II.

After concluding a ten years' truce with the Hungarians, Amurath II. resigned the Turkish scepter to his son Mohammed, then only fifteen years of age, and retired to Magnesia, near Smyrna, in Asia Minor.

Caramanian Revolt.

No sooner had Amurath II. begun to taste the sweets of repose than the restless Caramanians, who had repeatedly rebelled against him, and who had been as often subdued and pardoned, took advantage of his retirement and again took up arms. The Hungarians also, instigated by the Pope, and in violation of a solemn treaty, crossed the Danube into Bulgaria with a large army, composed of various Christian nations, being under the command of King Ladislas VI. of Poland and Hungary and John Hunníyades of Transylvania.

Formidable Hungarian Invasion.

Resumption of Amurath II.

The young Mohammed, thus surrounded with enemies, and destitute of experience, yielded to the advice of his counselors and entreated his father to resume the throne. Amurath II. reluctantly complied, hastened to Adrianople, took command of the Ottoman armies, and saved the Ottoman Empire from ruin by his great victory over the Christian army under King Ladislas VI. of Poland and Hungary and John Hunníyades of Transylvania, at Varna, in Bulgaria, on the Black Sea coast, in 1444, King Ladislas VI. himself being slain, and his head being carried about on a spear, while the papal legate Julian was overtaken by death during the flight from the fatal field. Soon afterward Amurath II. again retired from the cares of government to the solitude of his beautiful residence at Magnesia; but his son's feeble hand was unable to restrain the licentiousness of the Janizaries. Adrianople became a prey to domestic faction, and the aged Sultan again resumed the scepter.

Battle of Varna.

Second Retirement and Resumption of Amurath II.

Good Character of Amurath II.

Amurath II. has been praised by both Turkish and Greek writers. He was a just and valiant prince, moderate in victory, and always ready to grant peace to the vanquished. He was a learned man himself, and encouraged learning in others. Says the historian Cantemir: "Every year he gave a thousand pieces of gold to the sons of the Prophet, and sent twenty-five hundred pieces to the religious persons at Mecca, Medina and Jerusalem." He founded many colleges and hospitals, built many mosques and caravanseries, and added much to the magnificence of the cities and towns of the Ottoman Empire.

Sultan Mohammed II., A. D. 1451–1481.

Amurath II. died in 1451, and was succeeded by his son MOHAMMED II., who was then twenty-one years of age, and who was one of the most famous of the Turkish Sultans. He had been educated by his father with the greatest care, and is said to have been able to speak in the Arabic, Persian, Hebrew, Greek and Latin languages, in addition to his native Turkish tongue. But, in spite of his training, he was a cruel and lustful tyrant; and began his reign by putting his two infant brothers to death.

His Learning and Cruelties.

Siege and Capture of Constantinople by Mohammed II.

From the beginning of his reign Mohammed II. was resolved upon taking Constantinople and making that city the capital of the Ottoman Empire. Constantinople and its suburbs were now all that remained of the Eastern Roman Empire. The inhabitants of Constantinople were but ill prepared to withstand the attack of an enemy. They were distracted with religious feuds. Some desired a union with the Roman Church, but others declared that they would rather see the turban of Mohammed in their cathedral than the tiara of the Pope. The Christian nations of Western Europe refused to send relief to their Greek brethren of the East, and Constantinople was left to its fate. In 1452 Sultan Mohammed II. commenced fortifying the Bosphorus, to prevent the passage of European fleets to the relief of the Byzantine capital: and in the spring of 1453 he advanced to Constantinople with an army of two hundred and sixty thousand men, invested the city and took it by storm, after a siege of fifty-three days, May 29, 1453. The last Greek Emperor, Constantine Palæologus, was slain while gallantly defending his capital. Constantinople became the capital of the Ottoman Empire, but the triumphant Sultan Mohammed II. treated the vanquished Greeks with liberality, and encouraged them to remain in the conquered city. Thus ended the Eastern Empire of the Romans; the last remnants of Roman and Greek civilization in the East were now extinguished; the Greek Christian Church of St. Sophia became a Mohammedan mosque; the crescent supplanted the cross in the city of Constantine; and a Moslem monarch occupied the throne of the first Christian Roman Emperor.

End of the Eastern Roman Empire.

Alarm of Christendom.

The capture of Constantinople and overthrow of the Greek Empire by the arms of Sultan Mohammed II. alarmed all Europe and caused Italy to tremble for its safety. Pope Nicholas V., and his second successor, Pius II., sent the most urgent appeals to all the monarchs of Western Christendom, entreating them to combine their forces against the conquering Turks. Pius II. even resolved to animate this new crusade by his own presence, but death prevented him from executing his purpose. But two Christian princes arrested the progress of the Ottoman arms, and thus proved themselves protectors and saviours of Christendom; as we shall now see.

Defeat of Mohammed II. by the Hungarians at Belgrade.

Sultan Mohammed II. sought to follow up the capture of Constantinople by the conquest of Hungary. He advanced to the Danube and laid siege to the important fortress of Belgrade, but was defeated and driven back with heavy loss, after a siege of six months, in 1456, by the Hungarians under the valiant regent, John Hunníyades of Transylvania. According to a Greek writer, the Sultan lost many troops "not only by the plague, but by engines cast in the form of tubes, which, by means of a dust, composed of nitre, sulphur and charcoal, shot out balls

of lead, five or ten together, each as big as a walnut." This is one of the earliest descriptions of gunpowder to be found in any history.

Ottoman Conquest Checked.

The victory of Hunniyades at Belgrade saved Hungary's independence. The renewal of these efforts at conquest by Sultan Mohammed II. met with no better success, and the Ottoman arms made no further progress in that quarter for many years. The voiwodes of Moldavia defended themselves with such valor that the Sultan was content with their nominal submission.

Conquest of Greece and Trebizond by Mohammed II.

Mohammed II. turned his arms against the remaining Greek states. He conquered Greece proper and annexed it to the Ottoman Empire in 1460; and the next year Trebizond, at the east end of the Black Sea, surrendered to his arms, and the Greek dynasty of the Comneni, which had reigned there for two and a-half centuries, came to an end.

Scanderbeg's Successful Resistance in Albania.

In the mountainous region of Albania, the ancient Epirus, the valiant prince, Alexander Castriota, better known as Scanderbeg, which in Turkish signifies *Alexander the Great*, defended himself. In 1467 the Turks invaded his territory; but Scanderbeg, at the head of a small but faithful band of followers, resisted the mighty Ottoman hosts with success and forced them to raise the siege of his capital. Thenceforth until his death Scanderbeg maintained the independence of his little principality.

Turkish Invasion of Italy and Capture of Otranto.

In 1481 Sultan Mohammed II. sent an army across the Adriatic, and this Turkish force stormed and sacked the town of Otranto, on the eastern coast of Lower Italy. After securing this important footing in Italy, the Turkish Sultan prepared to follow it up by the conquest of that entire peninsula; but, in the midst of the general alarm which his movements occasioned throughout Europe, Mohammed II. died the same year, A. D. 1481.

Sultan Bajazet II., A. D 1481–1512.

A dispute for the succession to the Turkish throne arose between the two sons of Mohammed II., Bajazet and Zizim, each of whom had partisans among the Janizaries. Bajazet II. prevailed in Constantinople, and seized the throne. Zizim raised an army in Bithynia, and took possession of Brusa. Bajazet II. sent his Grand Vizier, Ahmed, against his brother with a strong force; and Zizim was forced to seek refuge with his mother and his two children in Syria, and afterward in Egypt, both of which countries were then under the dominion of the Mameluke Sultans.

Zizim's Revolt.

His Defeat and Flight.

The Sultan of Egypt and Syria received Zizim with great hospitality, and endeavored to persuade him to relinquish his ambitious schemes, but without success; and Zizim next resorted to the Emir of Caramania, in Asia Minor, the petty province which had so long been hostile to the Ottoman Sultans. Zizim and the Emir of Caramania took the field against Bajazet II., but were defeated; and Zizim fled to the island of

Rhodes, where he sought an asylum with the Knights of St. John, who were then at war with Bajazet II.

His Refuge at Rhodes and Imprisonment at Rome.

Zizim was favorably received at Rhodes by the Knights of St. John. Sultan Bajazet II. made advantageous offers of peace to the Knights of St. John, on condition that they should deliver his brother into his power. They refused this condition; but, as they were anxious to conclude a treaty with the Sultan, they persuaded Zizim to retire to Italy. The Pope kept him a prisoner at Rome for several years, assigned him elegant apartments at the Vatican, and treated him with all the respect due to his rank, but refused him his liberty.

His Release and Suspicious Death.

Several Christian kings desired to have the custody of the captive Turkish prince, as a check upon the Sultan. At length King Charles VIII. of France, while passing through Rome, on his expedition against Naples in 1494, caused Zizim to be released; but the exiled Turkish prince died several days afterward, believed to have been poisoned through the instrumentality of the wicked Pope Alexander VI. at the instigation of Sultan Bajazet II. Being thus relieved of a dangerous competitor, Bajazet II. devoted himself to the cultivation of literature. During his reign the Turkish power declined. Bajazet II. conquered Bessarabia and some provinces in Asia.

Forced Abdication and Suspicious Death of Bajazet II.

The last days of Sultan Bajazet II. were embittered by the unfilial treatment which he received from his son Selim, who was fierce and warlike, and a great favorite with the Janizaries, by whose aid he forced his father to abdicate the Turkish crown in his favor, in preference to his elder brother, Achmet. Bowed down with age and infirmities, Bajazet II. retired from Constantinople with about five hundred domestics, but died on his way to Adrianople, supposed to have been poisoned by his physician at the command of his son and successor, Selim I., A. D. 1512.

Sultan Selim I., A. D. 1512–1520.

Selim I., surnamed Gavúz, or "the Savage," who had usurped the Turkish throne in 1512 by dethroning his father, whom he put to death along with his two brothers and his five nephews, was obliged to maintain his throne by a series of bloody civil wars with other members of his family and was victorious. He was the first of the Ottoman Sultans to assume the sacred title of Khalif, which has ever since been borne by his successors.

His Crimes and Triumph.

His Wars with Persia.

Selim I. waged frequent wars with the modern Persian kingdom under the Suffeean dynasty, defeated Ismail Suffee at Tabriz in 1514, and annexed Kurdistan and Mesopotamia, along with Diarbekr and several other provinces east of the Tigris, to the Ottoman Empire.

His Conquest of Syria.

The Mameluke Sultans of Egypt and Syria had aided the Persians, and their army under Sultan Gauri was defeated in a sanguinary engagement near Aleppo, their leader slain and their power completely

broken in Syria. Aleppo and Damascus both submitted to the Turks, and Syria became a province of the Ottoman Empire, A. D. 1517.

His Invasion of Egypt and Victories at Cairo.

Selim I. then invaded Egypt. Túman Bey, who had been elected as the chief Mameluke Sultan to succeed Gauri, assembled the remnants of the Mamelukes under the walls of Cairo, was reinforced by Arab auxiliaries, and prepared to resist Selim I., who advanced steadily and attacked the Mameluke camp. After a bloody and desperate battle, in which the Turkish artillery fire was served mainly by Christian cannoniers, Selim II. won the victory; and, after having done all that was possible for his cause, Túman Bey was driven into Cairo. Selim I. took the city by storm, and Túman Bey fled across the Nile, and by incredible exertions raised another army. The Turks pursued him closely and forced him to battle, utterly routed the Mamelukes and captured Túman Bey himself.

Excution of the Mameluke Sultan.

The conquering Selim I. at first was disposed to spare his captive's life, but his officers, who feared and envied Túman Bey, persuaded the Turkish Sultan that such clemency might inspire the Mamelukes with the hope of recovering their dominions, and the unfortunate Mameluke Sultan was hanged at the chief gate of Cairo. This completed the Turkish conquest of Egypt, which thus became a province of the Ottoman Empire, A. D. 1517.

Turkish Conquest of Egypt.

Turkish Exaction of Tribute from the Conquered Nations.

The Turkish conquerors did not attempt to impose their religion on the people whom they conquered. They even left the conquered race in the enjoyment of their own political institutions. They contented themselves with levying a tribute on every Greek town and village, according to its population. So long as the inhabitants paid their tribute regularly they were left at liberty to worship in their own churches, to elect their own magistrates, and to be governed by their own municipal laws. Although the conquered people were subject to a heavy contribution for the benefit of the Sultan's treasury, this tribute was collected in the least oppressive manner by their own magistrates, whose duty was to tax all persons, without distinction, according to their means. Not many people who have been subjected to foreign dominion have been left in possession of so many political privileges as were the Greeks by their Ottoman conquerors.

Sultan Solyman the Magnificent, A. D. 1520–1566.

Sultan Selim I. died in 1520, and was succeeded on the Turkish throne by his renowned son, SOLYMAN THE MAGNIFICENT, the greatest of all the Ottoman Sultans, who reigned forty-six years (1520–1566), and under whom the Ottoman Empire reached the zenith of its power and glory. The remainder of the Turkish history will be given in subsequent portions of this work, where the various great wars of the Ottoman Empire with the great Christian powers of Europe will be fully dealt with in their proper places.

Turkish Glory.

SECTION II.—THE MODERN PERSIAN EMPIRE (A. D. 1501 TO THE PRESENT TIME).

Rise of Modern Persia under the Suffeean Dynasty.

For more than a century under Tamerlane's successors Persia was distracted by civil wars, until the beginning of the sixteenth century, when that famous land again came under the sway of a native Persian dynasty. In 1501 Ismail Suffee, a descendant of the holy sheikh Suffee, established the independence of Persia, and became the founder of the Suffavean, or Suffeean dynasty. From small beginnings Ismail saw his power increase during a period of four years until the whole of Persia submitted to his authority, thus giving rise to the Modern Persian Empire.

Ismail Suffee, A. D. 1501–1523.

His Wars with Turkey.

Sultan Selim I. of Turkey, alarmed at the rise of this new Mohammedan power in the East, marched from Constantinople to crush his rising rival. The Shah Ismail was defeated in the great battle of Tabriz, in 1514; but Sultan Selim's death, in 1520, enabled him to retrieve his losses, and to subject even Georgia to his sway. Ismail is still venerated by the Persians as the restorer of their national independence.

Tamasp, A. D. 1523–1576.

Ismail died in 1523, and was succeeded as Shah of Persia by his son Tamasp, whose reign of fifty-three years was a period of great prosperity for Persia. Anthony Jenkinson, one of the earliest English adventurers to Persia, visited Tamasp's court as an envoy from Queen Elizabeth; but the Mohammedan sovereign's intolerance soon drove this Christian ambassador from his presence.

Abbas the Great, A. D. 1582–1628.

After the death of Tamasp, in 1576, his three sons disputed the Persian crown among themselves; but their short reigns deserve no notice. In 1582 Abbas the Great, grandson of Tamasp, was proclaimed Shah of Persia by some of the discontented nobles, and was compelled to appear in arms against his father Mohammed Mirza, who was deserted by his army, and is not mentioned again in history. But Abbas the Great did not long remain a mere instrument in the hands of others; but, seizing the reins of power, he soon rose to distinction, and became a great and powerful monarch; and his reign is the most brilliant in the history of modern Persia.

His Great Reign.

His Conquests from the Turks.

Shah Abbas the Great successfully defended his kingdom against the efforts of the Turks to conquer it, defeating the Ottoman forces in many battles. In the battle of Erivan one hundred thousand Turks were defeated by a little more than sixty thousand Persians. The result of this Persian victory was that all the Turkish territories on the Caspian Sea, in Azerbijan, Georgia, Kurdistan, Bagdad, Mosul and Diarbekr were annexed to the Persian Empire.

Commercial Intercourse with England.

During the reign of Shah Abbas the Great commercial intercourse was established between Persia and England, and the most amicable relations between those two nations continued for many years. With the aid of the English East India Company, Abbas the Great wrested Ormuz from the Portuguese in 1622; and that great emporium of the East soon relapsed into its original insignificance.

Ormuz.

Religious Toleration.

Shah Abbas the Great was in many respects an enlightened sovereign. Though he professed to be a devout Mohammedan, he tolerated all religions, and was particularly friendly to the few Christians who came into his dominions. His foreign policy was generally liberal. He expended his revenues in useful public works. Caravansaries, bridges, aqueducts, bazaars, mosques and colleges arose in every part of his dominions. His capital, Ispahan, was splendidly embellished, as were also other Persian cities. The ruins of the palaces of Furrahbad, in Mazunderan, and of Ashruff, in Astrabad, still attest his munificence. Even at the present time, if a stranger sees an edifice of more than ordinary beauty or solidity, and inquires who was its founder, he is likely to be answered that it is the work of Shah Abbas the Great.

Great Works of Abbas the Great.

Beneficial Results of His Reign.

There have been few sovereigns who have done more substantial good to their kingdom than Shah Abbas the Great. He studied to improve the administration of Persia, and his exertions proved beneficial to his subjects. He established an internal tranquillity throughout his dominions that had been unknown for centuries. He put an end to the annual ravages of the Uzbeck Tartars, whom he confined to their own territories. He drove the Ottoman Turks from his kingdom, of which they had held some of the fairest provinces when he ascended the Persian throne. Justice was administered in accordance with the laws of religion; and the state seldom interfered, except to support the law, or to punish those who thought themselves above it. In short, Shah Abbas the Great raised Persia to a height of prosperity beyond what it had enjoyed for ages.

His Cruelties to His Sons.

Abbas the Great was severe in his administration of justice; and in his later years his punishments were sudden and summary, and were inflicted upon mere suspicion. He was a cruel tyrant to his own family and relatives. He had four sons, on whom he doted so long as they were children; but when they approached manhood they became objects of his jealousy. The eldest of these sons, Suffee Mirza, a brave and high-spirited youth, fell the first victim to his father's suspicion; being stabbed as he came out of the bath, by order of his unnatural father, who was soon afterward so stung with remorse for his unfatherly act that he put to death the nobles who had inflamed his mind against his son. But repentance wrought no change in the gloomy soul of Shah Abbas the Great. One of his sons had died before the murder of Suf-

fee Mirza; and the inhuman father caused the eyes of the two remaining sons to be put out, so as to render them incapable of reigning.

His Son's Murder of His Daughter and Suicide.

The elder of these two surviving sons had two children, the elder of whom was a lovely girl named Fatima, who was the delight of her grandfather. The father of this child, goaded to desperation by his blindness and other misfortunes, seized her one day, as she came out to caress him, and, with maniac fury, killed her; after which he groped for his infant boy; but the shrieking mother fled, carrying her child to her father-in-law for protection. The grief and rage of Abbas the Great for the murder of his favorite grandchild afforded a momentary joy to that child's miserable father, who ended the horrible tragedy by committing suicide by swallowing poison.

Crimes in Oriental Courts.

Such appalling scenes are of frequent occurrence in the palace of an Oriental despot. Yet Shah Abbas the Great is the monarch who is most admired by the Persians, and the tenure of arbitrary power is so precarious in Persia that sovereigns of a similar character alone have successfully ruled the nation. The perpetration of crime appears too often the dreadful obligation of that absolute power to which an Oriental monarch is born, and therefore the character of the government merits our abhorrence more than that of the despot. Persia's prosperity ended with the death of Abbas the Great, in 1628.

Successors of Abbas the Great.

After the death of Shah Abbas the Great, in 1628, Persia was ruled by a series of imbecile tyrants—Shah Suffee I. (1628–1641), Abbas II. (1641–1666), and Shah Suffee II. (1666–1694)—whose reigns are almost a blank in the history of that Oriental monarchy.

Hussein, A. D. 1694–1722.

In the reign of Hussein, who became Shah of Persia in 1694, the Afghan tribes, who had long been subject to Persia, broke out in open rebellion. At the same time the Uzbeck Tartars ravaged the Persian province of Khorassan, and tribes of wild Kurds overran different portions of the Persian kingdom. Shah Hussein was wholly incompetent for the government of the kingdom in such an emergency. To add to his perplexities, the astrologers predicted the total destruction of Ispahan by an earthquake—a prediction which caused a universal panic in Persia. The Shah and his court fled from the capital; and the Mohammedan priests assumed the direction of affairs, prescribing every measure that fanaticism could suggest to avert the threatened vengeance of Heaven.

Afghans, Uzbecks and Kurds.

Prediction and Panic.

Afghan Invasion of Persia.

In this crisis it was announced that an Afghan army of twenty-five thousand men under Mahmoud Ghiljee had invaded Persia, A. D. 1722. The inhabitants of the Persian capital received this announcement as the signal of their doom, but made no adequate preparations to meet the Afghan invaders. The Afghan army of twenty thousand men advanced rapidly to Ispahan. The Persian army numbered fifty thou-

sand men, who shone in gold and silver, while their pampered steeds were sleek from high feeding and repose. The Afghans were mounted on lean but hardy horses, and the only things that glittered in their camp were swords and lances.

Afghan Siege and Capture of Ispahan.

The Afghans defeated the Persians at Gulnabad, nine miles from Ispahan, and compelled them to flee in disorder into the capital, which was at once besieged by the victorious Afghans. The inhabitants of Ispahan endured indescribable miseries during the siege, being obliged to subsist on human flesh; and the streets, the squares and the gardens were covered with putrefying carcasses. After enduring these miseries for seven months, Ispahan finally surrendered to the besieging Afghans, October 21, 1722.

Hussein's Deposition and Murder.

The triumphant Afghans deposed Shah Hussein, and cast him into prison, where he was murdered. Amazed at his own success, Mahmoud Ghiljee at first adopted conciliatory measures; but when he found the inhabitants of Ispahan recovering from their apathy he became gloomy and suspicious, and resolved upon the frantic enterprise of exterminating all the male population of the Persian capital. He commenced by massacring three thousand of Hussein's guards and three hundred Persian nobles. He then proscribed every one who had been in the Shah's service. For more than a fortnight the streets of Ispahan flowed with blood, and the spirit of its inhabitants was so utterly broken that it was a common thing to see one Afghan leading three or four Persians to execution.

Massacre at Ispahan by the Afghans.

Insanity and Murder of Mahmoud Ghiljee.

But the practice of these horrid massacres soon made Mahmoud Ghiljee a madman. He secluded himself in a dungeon for a fortnight, fasting and practicing the severest penances, hoping thus to propitiate Heaven. The only effect of this was to increase his madness; and at length his mother caused him to be smothered, in order to relieve him of his sufferings. He was succeeded as chief of the Afghans by his cousin Ashruff.

Persia under Afghan Tyranny and Cruelty.

For seven years the Afghans under their chief, Ashruff, ruled Persia with the most horrible tyranny and cruelty, costing the country the blood of a million of its population. But the fortunes of Persia were soon retrieved, and Ashruff encountered a rival in every part of the country where he least expected opposition. Tamasp II., Shah Hussein's son and successor, had assumed the nominal sovereignty of the Persian kingdom, witn the support of Khouli Khan, a chief who had risen from the humble condition of a common laborer to the leadership of the Affshar tribe of Persia, and who declared his determination to drive every Afghan from the soil of Persia, A. D. 1730.

Ashruff, the Afghan chief, prepared for war, but was defeated by Khouli Khan in three great battles. The Afghan invaders were soon

Khouli Khan's Victories and Expulsion of the Afghans from Persia.

obliged to evacuate Ispahan, and were overtaken by Khouli Khan at the ruins of Persepolis, where they were again defeated, whereupon they fled to Shiraz. Their numbers still amounted to twenty thousand; but, as their leader deserted them to save himself, they dispersed, and very few reached their homes. Ashruff was overtaken in Seistan, and was slain by a Beloochee, who sent his head and a large diamond which he wore to Shah Tamasp II. "Thus was destroyed the grisly phantom which for seven wretched years had brooded over Persia, converting her fairest provinces into deserts, her cities into charnel-houses, and glutting itself with the blood of a million of her people."

Tamasp II., A. D. 1730–1736.

Khouli Khan's Usurpation as Nadir Shah.

In 1732 Khouli Khan, whose ambition was insatiable, deposed Tamasp II., and Tamasp's youthful puppet son and successor, Abbas III., in 1736, and made himself Shah of Persia with the title of Nadir Shah. He soon reconquered several provinces on the Caspian which Peter the Great of Russia had wrested from Persia, and compelled the Sultan of Turkey to cede Armenia and Georgia to him after driving the Turks from Persia. He reduced the province of Khorassan, took the important cities of Candahar and Balkh, and subdued Afghanistan. In 1739 he invaded Hindoostan, and, by gaining a great victory over the Mogul army, became master of the Great Mogul Empire, occupying and plundering its capital, the great city of Delhi, and massacring a hundred thousand of its inhabitants. The Persian army returned home laden with a booty estimated at three hundred and fifty million dollars.

His Conquests from Russia, Turkey, Afghans and Moguls.

His Vast Empire.

Under Nadir Shah the proud days of Persian splendor and glory appeared to be restored; and the boundaries of the Modern Persian Empire were the Caucasus mountain range, the Caspian Sea and the Oxus river on the north, the Indus river on the east, the Arabian Sea and the Persian Gulf on the south, and the river Tigris on the west.

His Tyranny and Cruelty.

But like Shah Abbas the Great, Nadir Shah, in the midst of his glory, was rendered miserable by domestic calamities; as he was, like Abbas the Great, a cruel tyrant to his subjects and to his own family. He was rendered haughty by ambition, and made suspicious and cruel by avarice. Suspecting his eldest son Reza to be plotting against him, he caused the prince's eyes to be put out. Said Reza: "It is not *my* eyes you have put out; it is those of Persia." Says Sir John Malcolm in his *History of Persia:* "The prophetic truth sank deep into the heart of Nadir, who, becoming from that moment a prey to remorse and gloomy anticipations, never knew happiness nor desired that others should feel it."

Blinding of His Son Reza.

His Cruelties and Assassination.

The remaining years of his life were marked by a frightful succession of cruelties. Whole cities were depopulated by his murders, and people left their abodes and sought safety in caverns and deserts. Finally his madness rose to such a height that he contemplated putting to

death almost every Persian in his army. His barbarities eventually drove his subjects to despair; and he was assassinated by the captain of his guard, his officers being obliged to resort to this step to save their own lives, A. D. 1747. Shah Rokh reigned four years (1747–1751).

Anarchy and Civil War.

After the assassination of Nadir Shah, Persia relapsed into anarchy, while the Afghans and the Uzbecks reasserted their independence. More than half a century of revolution and civil war followed, in consequence of the efforts of various competitors for the Persian crown.

Kerim Khan, A. D. 1759–1779.

Kerim Khan ruled Persia twenty years, from 1759 to 1779, and fought successfully against the Ottoman Turks and the Turkomans. But after his death the internal troubles of Persia were renewed, and the Russians took advantage of this anarchy to seize Georgia in 1783.

Kadjar Dynasty Founded by Aga Mohammed Khan.

In 1795 Aga Mohammed Khan made himself Shah of Persia, and became the founder of the Kadjar, or Turkoman dynasty, which still occupies the Persian throne. After usurping the sovereignty of Persia, Aga Mohammed Khan restored order to the kingdom which had been so long distracted by civil war and anarchy, and removed the capital of Persia from Ispahan to Teheran, which still remains the seat of government of that famous Oriental monarchy. He then invaded Georgia, captured and pillaged Tiflis, its capital, and massacred its inhabitants.

Teheran.

Cruelty and Ferocity of Aga Mohammed Khan.

Aga Mohammed Khan was a man of an extraordinarily ferocious disposition, and treated his family with great cruelty. Although he was a sagacious and profound dissembler, he was rigorously just; and, although he was grasping and avaricious himself, he would not in the least tolerate peculation in his officials. He was particularly indulgent to his soldiers, and they repaid his kindness by their fidelity. In his latter years his temper, which had always been peevish and dangerous, became ferocious. His countenance is said to have resembled that of a shriveled old woman, and to have occasionally assumed a horrible expression, of which he was sensible, and for which reason he could not endure to be looked at. Even his confidential domestics approached him trembling, and their blood crudled at the sound of his shrill, dissonant voice, which was usually raised only by uttering a term of gross abuse or an order for punishment.

His Assassination.

Aga Mohammed Khan was assassinated in 1797 by two of his attendants whom he had sentenced to death for disturbing him with their noise. He was succeeded on the Persian throne by his nephew Futeh Ali Shah, whose long reign of thirty-eight years, A. D. 1797–1835, was disturbed by several bloody wars with Russia, which will be noticed in the history of the nineteenth century. Futeh Ali Shah's grandson and successor, Mohammed Shah, had an uneventful reign of thirteen years, A. D. 1835–1848. Shah Mohammed's son and successor, Nasr-ed-

Futeh Ali Shah.

Mohammed Shah.

Nasr-ed-Din.

Muzafer-ed-Din.

DIN, waged a short war with Great Britain in 1857. He was assassinated in 1896 and was succeeded by his son, MUZAFER-ED-DIN, who in 1906 gave Persia her first constitution and Parliament.

SHAHS OF MODERN PERSIA.

Suffean Dynasty.	A. D. 1736 Nadir Shah (Khouli Khan), murdered in 1747.
A. D. 1501 Ismail I.	1747 Shah Rokh.
1523 Tamasp I.	1751 An interregum.
1576 Ismail II.	1759 Kerim Khan.
1577 Mohammed Mirza.	1779 Rival Shahs and assassinations till 1795.
1582 Abbas the Great.	
1628 Shah Suffee I.	*Kadjar, or Turkoman Dynasty.*
1641 Abbas II.	1795 Aga Mohammed Kahn (murdered in 1797).
1666 Shah Suffee II.	1797 Futeh Ali Shah.
1694 Hussein (deposed).	1835 Mohammed Shah.
Different Dynasties.	1848 Nasr-ul-Din, or Nasr-ed-Din (murdered in 1896).
1722 Mahmoud (Afghan chief).	1896 Muzafer-ed-Din.
1725 Ashruff (usurper).	
1730 Tamasp II.	
1732 Abbas III.	

SECTION III.—THE MOGUL EMPIRE IN INDIA (A. D. 1525–1803).

Conquest of Indai by Mohammed of Gaur.

THE dismemberment of the Ghiznivide Empire, about the middle of the twelfth century, was followed by the conquest of most of its territories in Hindoostan by Mohammed of Gaur, the chief of a horde of barbarians from the Hindoo Koosh, who plundered Benares, the most holy place of Hindoo superstition, and established his capital at Lahore, in the Punjab, A. D. 1183. After his death a new Afghan dynasty, called Patans, obtained possession of most of Hindoostan, and made the more central city of Delhi their capital. Baber, the second Patan sovereign of India, conquered Bengal; but his Persian and Tartar dominions were conquered by Zingis Khan's successors. For two centuries the wealth of the Patan kings at Delhi exposed them to constant attack from the Mongols and Tartars; but the most destructive of these invasions was that by Tamerlane in 1399, who captured Delhi after a great battle, plundered the city of its wealth, massacred one hundred thousand captives who impeded his march, and atrociously slaughtered multitudes of unarmed pilgrims to the Ganges.

Patan, or Afghan Dynasty in India.

Tamerlane's Capture and Massacre of Delhi.

Tamerlane established no permanent empire in India; and the Patan dynasty ended with the death of Mahmoud, in 1413, when the governors of provinces set up independent sovereignties, all of which were

A
B
C
D
E
F
Longitude
THE HOLY ROMAN EMPIRE
POLAND
BALTIC SEA
SWEDEN
DENMARK
LIVONIAN ORDER
TEUTONIC
LITHUANIA
REPUBLIC OF NOVGOROD
Novgorod
DUCHY OF MOSCOW
Moscow
Vienna
HUNGARY
Kiev
HALICZ
MOLDAVIA
WALACHIA
SERVIA
BULGARIA
EASTERN ROMAN EMPIRE
CONSTANTINOPLE
BLACK SEA
KUBAN
PEREKOP
GREAT BULGARIA
KHANATES OF THE GOLDEN HORDE
BLUE
WHITE
SARAI
KIPCHAK
KHWARIZM
SIGHNAK
KHANATE
CHAGH
SAMARKAND
TURKISTAN
Kabul
KASHMIR
PUNJAB
ILKHANATE
PERSIA
KHURASAN
Herat
Ispahan
Bagdad
Derbend
GURGESTAN
TREBIZOND
KARAMAN
TEKKA
KINGDOM OF CYPRUS
Antioch
Aleppo
Damascus
GEZIRA
IRAK EL ARAB
IRAK EL AGAM
MAMLUKS
SULTANATE OF THE BAHRI
RED SEA
PERSIAN GULF
KIRMANI
LARISTAN
MUKRAN
RAJPUTANA
Jodhpur
Jaipur
GUJARAT
SEA OF OMAN
Maskat
Multan
Lahore
Delhi
Kirman
Yezd
Shiraz
Kharezm
Khiva
Bokhara
Samarkand
Tashkend
Balkh
Kunduz
Kandahar
Ghazni
Peshawar
Attock
Cabul
Multan
Sehwan
Tatta
Diu
Daman
Surat
Broach
Cambay
Ahmadabad
Nehrwalla
Dwarka
Somnath
Ujjain
Mandu
Chitor
Ajmir
Agra
Delhi
Lahore
Multan
Kandahar
Herat
Meshed
Nishapur
Tus
Damghan
Rai
Sultanieh
Tabriz
Erzerum
Trebizond
Sivas
Angora
Brusa
Nicomedia
Nicaea
Constantinople
Adrianople
Philippopolis
Sofia
Belgrade
Buda
Vienna
Prague
Cracow
Lemberg
Kiev
Moscow
Novgorod
Wisby
Stockholm
Upsala
Abo
Reval
Riga
Memel
Konigsberg
Dantzic
Lubeck
Hamburg
Bremen
Amsterdam
Utrecht
Cologne
Frankfort
Nuremberg
Ratisbon
Augsburg
Munich
Innspruck
Venice
Milan
Genoa
Florence
Rome
Naples
Palermo
Messina
Syracuse
Malta
Tripoli
Tunis
Algiers
Oran
Fez
Tangier
Gibraltar
Seville
Granada
Cordova
Toledo
Madrid
Lisbon
Oporto
Coimbra
Valladolid
Burgos
Saragossa
Barcelona
Marseilles
Lyons
Paris
Rouen
Calais
Boulogne
Dieppe
Nantes
Bordeaux
Toulouse
Montpellier
Avignon
Nice
Turin
Verona
Padua
Ravenna
Bologna
Ancona
Perugia
Capua
Salerno
Otranto
Brindisi
Taranto
Reggio
Catania
Trapani
Cagliari
Corsica
Sardinia
Elba
Sicily
Crete
Rhodes
Cyprus
Alexandria
Cairo
Suez
Mecca
Medina
Aden
Muscat
Ormuz
Basra
Bagdad
Mosul
Diarbekir
Aleppo
Damascus
Jerusalem
Acre
Tyre
Sidon
Beirut
Tripoli
Antioch
Iconium
Tarsus
Adana
Smyrna
Ephesus
Pergamus
Troy
Gallipoli
Adrianople
Philippopolis
Sofia
Nicopolis

THE MONGOLIAN EMPIRES
CENTRAL ASIA
IN 1330 A. D.
Principal Trade Routes
H 90 J 100 K 110 L 120 M 130 N 140 O
80 Greenwich H 90 J 100 K 110 L
50
40
30
20
SAKHALIN
YAKUTES
TUNGUSES
Baikal Lake
Oldest Settlements of Mongols
Amur
Khalkha
Kerulen
Karakorum
Ulangsai
KEREITS (Supposed Christians)
Desert
KHITANS
KOREA
KAMBALUC
Yenking
Kingsungkwan
CATHAY
ORDOS
SHANSI
SHANTUNG
Barkul
Hami
Turfan
Karashar
Kuchar R.
Tarim Basin
Sachau
Kanchau
Ningsia
Lanchau
Mongols
1209-27
Conquered by
HSIA EMPIRE
Kaifeng
1234-1279
Conquered by Kublai Khan. in 1279
SUNG EMPIRE
HONAN
Southern Territory of Kin
Nanking
Hankau
Hingchau
SHENSI
Boundary between the Mongols & Sungs
Kuenlun Mts.
TIBET
Devastated by Mongol under Mangu Khan 1251-52
SZECHUAN
Kiangsi
Fuchau
Lassa
Brahmaputra R.
ASSAM
YUN-NAN
Si Kiang
Kwangchau
Luichau
HAINAN
KIANGNAN
Thibet
Patna
Benares
Allahabad
Pagan
MIEN
ARAKAN
PEGU
Pegu
Puri
Lakoutai
SIAM
CHODIN-SINA
CAMBODIA

united into the *Great Mogul Empire*, founded in 1525 by BABER, a descendant of Tamerlane, and which lasted almost three centuries. Baber had been the sovereign of a little principality between Kashgar and Samarcand, the throne of which he ascended at the age of twelve years, and which he secured permanently only after a struggle with rival claimants. He invaded India in 1525 with thirteen thousand cavalry, and routed Ibrahim II., the native ruler of Delhi, who had a hundred thousand cavalry and a thousand elephants, fifty miles from Delhi —a victory which made Baber sovereign of Hindoostan. The native princes of India then combined against Baber, but their army of a hundred thousand men was put to flight.

Mogul Empire in India Founded by Baber.

His Victories over the Native Princes.

Baber exhibited nothing of the barbarous character of the race from which he was descended. He was generous, enlightened and humane, and patronized literature and the arts. He was equaled by very few of his race in military capacity. He accomplished the most daring enterprises by his dauntless courage and perseverance, which arose above all difficulties, and rendered him more the object of admiration in his adversity than in the height of his prosperity. He did not forget himself in the hour of victory, but always exhibited that moderation and equanimity characteristic of a great soul. He distinguished himself as a lawgiver, excelled in literature, and wrote a volume of commentaries on his own reign, in the Mogul language, with elegance and perspicuity. He was somewhat of a voluptuary, notwithstanding his great capacity for politics. When disposed to abandon himself to pleasure he caused a fountain to be filled with wine, upon which a verse of this kind was inscribed: "Jovial days! blooming spring! wine and love! Enjoy freely, O Baber, for life is not twice to be enjoyed!" He was rashly brave, and merciful to a fault, thus frequently endangering his own safety. He so often pardoned ingratitude and treason that he seemed to make a principle of returning good for evil.

Baber's Good Qualities.

His Vices.

Baber died in 1530 at the age of forty-nine, and was succeeded by his son HUMAYAN. Humayan defeated the King of Guzerat; but his brothers conspired against him; while the Afghan prince Shere Shah also rebelled against him, defeated him in several battles and dethroned him in 1540, compelling him to seek refuge in Persia, and seizing the Mogul crown for himself.

Humayan, A. D. 1530–1540.

His Overthrow.

SHERE SHAH, as sovereign of Hindoostan, improved his dominions. He built caravansaries at every stage from the Indus to Bengal, dug a well at every two miles, erected the most magnificent mosques, planted rows of trees along the public highways, and established horse posts for the quicker conveyance of intelligence. Shere Shah reduced the power of the governors, and regulated the finances and the military. He devoted a fourth part of his time to administering justice, a fourth to

Shere Shah, Afghan Prince, A. D. 1540–1545.

the care of his army, a fourth to worship, and a fourth to rest and recreation. The native historian says that the public security was such that "travelers and merchants, throwing down their goods, composed themselves to sleep, without fear, upon the highway."

His Son Selim, A. D. 1545–1553.

Shere Shah was killed by accident in 1545, after a reign of five years, and was succeeded by his son SELIM, who subdued a rebellion against himself with great difficulty, and then reigned quietly. Selim, who was an able and moderate sovereign, displayed a taste for magnificence in architecture, and erected intermediate caravansaries between those built by his father.

Humayan's Second Reign, A. D. 1553–1555.

After the death of Selim, in 1553, Hindoostan was plunged into great disorder, and Humayan was entreated to return and resume his authority. He had excited the sympathy of the sister of Tamasp, Shah of Persia, and of some of the Persian nobles, and was allowed a troop of ten thousand Persian cavalry to recover Cabul from his traitorous brothers.

Camiran's Treachery and Ingratitude.

Humayan's temporary loss of his throne had been largely the result of the treason of his brother Camiran, who had wrested the Punjab from his brother, and who had deserted him just before his second defeat by Shere Shah. No treaty could bind Camiran, and no kindness or generosity could arouse his gratitude; and he was now the chief obstacle in the way of Humayan's success. On one occasion Camiran exposed Akbar, his own nephew, Humayan's son, upon the walls of Cabul to deter Humayan from an assault; but he finally relented when he was told that every person in Cabul should die in case any harm happened to Akbar.

Humayan's Kindness to Camiran.

Camiran soon afterward fell into his brother's power; and, notwithstanding all his offenses, Humayan treated him with kindness and respect, only to be repaid with the basest perfidy at the first opportunity. The other brother, Hindal, repented of his treason, and died fighting nobly in Humayan's service.

Camiran's Captivity and Blindness.

When Camiran had again fallen into Humayan's power all the Mogul chiefs demanded that he should be put to death for his repeated crimes. Humayan's refusal of this demand almost occasioned a revolt of the chiefs. Humayan finally consented with great reluctance that his brother should be blinded with antimony, in order to prevent any further mischief. Several days afterward Humayan went to see his blinded brother. Camiran rose to meet him, exclaiming: "The glory of the king will not be diminished by visiting the unfortunate." Humayan burst into tears and wept bitterly, although Camiran sought to console him by acknowledging the justice of his punishment. The restless prince obtained permission to make a journey to Mecca to expiate his crimes, and spent his last days in the Holy City of Arabia.

Defeats of Humayan's Enemies.

As Humayan had no army fit for the task of recovering his lost throne when he returned to Hindoostan, he fell into a deep melancholy; but, after his chiefs had made out some favorable omens to act on his mind through superstition, he crossed the Indus with a small force and took Lahore. His Vizier defeated one army sent to oppose him; and his son Akbar vanquished another of eighty thousand cavalry, many elephants and a large train of artillery.

Humayan's Accidental Death.

The victorious Humayan entered Delhi in 1554, but died the next year from a fall. He walked out on the terrace of his library one evening, and sat there for some time to enjoy the fresh air. When he began to descend the steps of the stair leading to the terrace, the crier of the mosque, according to custom, proclaimed the time for prayers. Humayan, conformably to the practice of the Mohammedan religion, stood still and repeated the creed; after which he sat down until the proclamation was ended. As he was about rising he supported himself upon a staff, which slipped upon the marble step, thus causing him to fall headlong to the foot of the stairs. About sunset on the fourth day after this fall, "his soul took her flight to Paradise," says the Persian historian who gives the account of this affair. The same writer sums up Humayan's character in one phrase: "Had he been a worse man he would have been a greater monarch."

Akbar, A. D. 1555–1605.

On the death of Humayan, in 1555, his son Akbar became sovereign of the vast Mogul Empire in India, at the age of thirteen. His father had appointed his Vizier, Byram, regent during the youthful monarch's minority. Several highly popular measures favorably introduced the new reign; such as prohibiting the usual exaction of presents from farmers, permitting all goods to pass free of toll, and abolishing the practice of pressing laborers to the wars.

Byram's Regency.

Afghan Capture of Delhi.

Upon hearing of Humayan's death, the Afghan Vizier, Himu, marched to Delhi and captured the city. Akbar at once intrusted the direction of affairs to Byram, whom he called "father." As Himu's army was five times larger than Akbar's, the latter's council of war advised a retreat to Cabul; but was opposed by Byram, who was so heartily seconded by the boy sovereign Akbar that the Mogul chiefs, delighted with the gallant alacrity of their youthful monarch, unanimously placed their lives and fortunes at his disposal.

Resolution of Byram and Akbar.

Defeat, Capture and Murder of Himu, the Afghan Leader.

The hostile armies encountered each other near Delhi; and the Moguls galled the troops of elephants in Himu's army so severely with arrows, lances and javelins that they became unmanageable and did as much injury to their masters as to their enemies. Himu, on a huge elephant, pushed four thousand cavalry into the very heart of the Mogul army. Being wounded in one eye he pulled out the arrow, and with it the eye; and, though thus horribly wounded, he continued the battle.

His driver, in order to save himself, pointed out his master to the Moguls; and, through this treacherous cowardice, Himu was taken prisoner and conducted to Akbar's presence. Byram told his sovereign that it would be a good action to kill "that infidel" with his own hand. Akbar drew his sword, but burst into tears and only laid the sword on Himu's shoulder. Byram sternly reproved Akbar's untimely clemency, and beheaded Himu at one blow.

Byram's Banishment, Revolt, Defeat and Captivity.

Byram's imperious disposition and severity soon caused Akbar to banish his faithful Vizier, who then headed a rebellion, but was defeated by Akbar's generals. Byram sent a slave to implore his sovereign's clemency, and Akbar generously pardoned his rebellious Vizier and treated him with the greatest kindness. The repentant Vizier, touched by his sovereign's magnanimity, burst into tears and cast himself at the foot of the throne. Akbar extended his hand to him, ordering him to rise and replacing him at the head of the princes of the Empire, and thus addressed him: "If the lord Byram loves a military life he shall have the government of Calpi and Chinderi, in which he may exercise his martial genius; if he chooses rather to remain at court, our favor shall not be wanting to the great benefactor of our family; but should devotion engage the soul of Byram to perform a pilgrimage to Mecca, he shall be escorted in a manner suitable to his dignity."

Akbar's Kindness to Him.

Byram's Journey to Mecca and Assassination.

Byram chose the last offer; but on his way to the Holy City of Arabia he was basely assassinated by the son of an Afghan chief whom he had killed in battle. Thus died a brave warrior and enlightened statesman, whose inhumanity, partly the result of a natural severity of disposition, was undoubtedly confirmed to a principle by repeated experiences of the unfortunate effects of the clemency of Humayan and Akbar, the sovereigns whom he had so ably served.

Akbar's Military Virtues and Abilities.

Akbar conquered the Deccan, and had to suppress repeated rebellions. In his military character he displayed the most reckless courage and audacity, and the most remarkable rapidity and decision of attack before the enemy was able to gather or concentrate his strength. On one occasion, while marching to the relief of the governor of Guzerat, who was besieged, Akbar, with only three thousand cavalry and three hundred camels, repulsed an attack by seven thousand cavalry, utterly routing the assailants. On numerous other occasions he risked his life in the thickest of the fight like a common trooper.

His Great Reign.

Akbar's good fortune and valor brought him triumphantly out of every danger, and, along with the unparalleled vigor and skill of his government during a reign of fifty years, impressed his subjects with an idea that his powers of mind and body were supernatural. He was one of the most successful and powerful sovereigns that have reigned over Hindoostan, and his administration was distinguished by wisdom

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PUBLIC PRAYER—COURT OF THE JUMMA MUSJID MOSQUE AT DELHI, INDIA

and equity. By his wise, liberal and beneficent policy, Akbar acquired and merited the title of "*Guardian of Mankind*"; and his reign was called the *Golden Age of India.*

The Ayeen Akberry.

The *Ayeen Akberry*, the "Mirror of Akbar"—a literary work written under his immediate direction, by his distinguished literary Vizier and friend, Abul Fazil, and which is still extant—details the comprehensive and excellent system of administration which Akbar put in practice. This work shows Akbar to have been preëminently a statesman, and affords valuable material for the historian. In addition to much financial and statistical matter, and sagacious observations upon men, politics and government, the *Ayeen Akberry* furnishes the regulations of the various departments and the domestic economy of the Mogul Empire in India, from the collection of the revenues and the care of the army to the stipends of the ladies of the harem, the daily food of Akbar's camels, and the manner in which the illustrious monarch's dinner was served.

Akbar's Civil Administration.

From the *Ayeen Akberry* we learn the methodical survey of the Mogul Empire in India made by Akbar, and which comprises an account of the revenues, manufactures and agricultural productions of the different districts, etc. The resources of the Empire being thus fully ascertained, Akbar, with the aid of his learned Vizier, effected a thorough improvement of the internal state of his Empire, while his generals were enlarging it by conquest. The improvement of the administration was carried on with the greatest vigor. A new division of the Empire was made; and under this arrangement the Mogul dominions in India were divided into eleven *soobahs*, or states, which were subdivided into *circars*, and the latter into *pergunnahs*—distinctions existing in Hindoostan at the present time, though the Mogul sovereignty has been at an end for more than a century.

Prosperity of His Empire.

Akbar encouraged literature and learning. He founded schools and directed the compilation of books. He fostered the arts and industry so successfully that no country seems ever to have been more prosperous than the Mogul Empire in India during his reign. There was abundance in every portion of his dominions. Though no heavy burdens were imposed upon the people, the revenues amounted to the immense sum of two hundred and fifty million dollars, according to some estimates.

Reforms and Internal Improvements.

No Oriental monarch ever distinguished himself in a more striking manner by administrative reforms than Akbar. His internal improvements accomplished more real good for his subjects, and acquired more true glory for himself, than could have been effected by the most brilliant and successful military career of the mightiest monarch of the world.

Akbar's Personal Habits and Occupations.

Akbar spent most of the night in business and in listening to the discourses of philosophers and historians, whom he delighted to gather about him. About three hours before day musicians were introduced, and these performed vocal and instrumental music. After that His Majesty passed an hour in silent prayer. Just before dawn people of all classes were in attendance, awaiting their sovereign's appearance. In addition to the opportunities of audience regularly afforded to all, Akbar occasionally appeared at a window, when petitions might be offered to him without any kind of intervention. He abolished the immemorial custom of prostration. He took but one meal daily, and that was so simple that he did not taste any animal food for months. He slept but little, and that mainly in the forenoon and evening.

His Wise and Just Rule.

Akbar's principles of government were to gain and secure the affections of his subjects; to prevent all injustice, and all delay of justice; to be tolerant in religion; and to make a sparing use of capital punishment. It is said that he never even laughed at or ridiculed any religious sect. The governors of the various provinces of the Empire were changed every three years. Taxes were required to be collected in an "affable" manner; and the collector was to consider himself "the immediate friend of the husbandman," and to lend him money when he needed it, this money to be repaid at a favorable time.

His Equitable Taxation.

Akbar's remarks on the administration of justice were peculiarly admirable for their clear, searching and impartial character. He removed many vexatious and injurious taxes, and substituted one broad, equitable levy upon all real estate, which he caused to be accurately surveyed, and the tax whereon he caused to be fixed. He remitted the navigation duties, and reduced the taxes on manufactures. He enhanced the value of the coin by improving its fineness.

His Good Qualities.

Akbar was the first man in his dominions in accomplishments, intellect and virtue as well as in station. He possessed that rare and fortunate combination of qualities for rule by which he was enabled to project, and to appreciate when others had projected, some of the loftiest principles of government, and to carry them into practice by his practical skill and by his diligent and personally close attention to details.

Agra Rebuilt.

The ancient city of Agra had become much dilapidated, and Akbar resolved to rebuild it and to make it the capital of his dominions instead of Delhi. For this purpose he collected the most skillful artisans and mechanics from all portions of Hindoostan, and by their aid the city rose from its ruined condition with great splendor.

Its Splendid Palace.

A magnificent castellated palace was erected there, which surpassed every other structure of its character in Hindoostan. It was four miles long; and lofty walls were constructed of enormous red stones resembling jasper, which shone with great brilliancy under the bright sun.

The entire structure was ornamented with stately porticoes, galleries and turrets, all elegantly painted and gilded, and many of them plated with gold.

Its Lovely Gardens.

The gardens attached to this immense edifice were laid out with the most exquisite taste, and were decorated with all that could gratify the eye or the ear. There were the loveliest shades of foliage, the most blooming bowers, grottoes of the most refreshing coolness, fruits of the most delicious flavor, and cascades that never ceased to murmur. In front of the palace toward the river was a vast area for the exercise of the royal elephants and for the combats of wild beasts—spectacles which the Mogul Emperors of India viewed with the greatest delight.

Internal Structure of the Palace.

The Dutch traveler Mandelslo, who visited Agra in 1638, stated that the great palace just described was the most magnificent structure that he had ever beheld. The avenue to the Emperor's presence-chamber was lined with pillars of silver. The chamber itself was of the size of a large hall, and was adorned with pillars of gold. The throne was of massy gold incrusted with diamonds and other precious stones. One of the towers of the edifice was likewise plated with gold. This tower contained the imperial treasures, in eight large vaults, which were filled with gold, silver, and precious stones of inestimable value.

Princely Residences, Caravansaries, Bazaars, Mosques, Etc.

In a line with the palace along the banks of the river were ranged the magnificent residences of the princes and the great rajahs, who vied with each other in embellishing the new capital and metropolis of India. These majestic structures were interspersed with avenues of lofty trees, broad canals and beautiful gardens. Akbar's munificence also provided Agra with an immense number of caravansaries, bazaars and mosques, remarkable for their stately size and for their elegant architecture.

Liberality to Foreigners.

Akbar's policy was in a high degree liberal to foreigners. This enlightened monarch invited intelligent men of all nations to settle in his capital. He caused houses and stores to be erected for them, permitted them free toleration for their religion, and granted them various privileges and immunities.

Intercourse with the Portuguese.

He opened an intercourse with the Portuguese, and invited the Portuguese government to send missionaries into his dominions that the Hindoos might be instructed in Christianity. Instead of displaying the bigotry so characteristic of most Mohammedan sovereigns, Akbar seems to have understood the principles of religerous toleration better than any Christian monarch of his time. In his letter to the King of Portugal, he severely censured the slavish propensity of mankind to adopt the religious opinions of their fathers without evidence or investigation; and he desired to be supplied with translations of the Christian Scriptures, as well as other works of general utility.

Akbar's Religious Liberality.

His Noble Sentiment.

In one of his proclamations, addressed to the officers of his Empire, he gave expression to the following sentiment: "The most acceptable adoration in this world, which a man can pay to his Creator, is to discharge his duty faithfully toward his fellow-creatures, discarding passion and partiality, and without distinction of friend or foe, relative or stranger."

Splendor of Agra, or Akbarabad.

He allowed the Portuguese to erect a church and found a college at Agra, and even endowed the college with a pension from his own treasury. By such liberal and politic measures, Akbar succeeded in making Agra the most flourishing city of Hindoostan; and it became thronged with Portuguese, Persian, Arab and Chinese merchants, who flocked in multitudes to this rich mart of Oriental commerce. During Akbar's reign the name of Agra was changed to *Akbarabad*, or the City of Akbar.

Jehanghire, A. D. 1605–1627.

Upon the death of Akbar, in 1605, his son Selim ascended the throne of the Mogul Empire in India, assuming the title of JEHANGHIRE, meaning "Lord of the World." The Mogul nobles attempted to place Jehanghire's son upon the throne; but the result was the execution of many of the nobles, and the confinement of the young prince. One of Jehanghire's first acts involved the remainder of his life in remorse.

Plot and Result.

Mher-ul-Nissa.

Before his accession he had fallen deeply in love with the beautiful and accomplished Mher-ul-Nissa, "the Sun of Women," the daughter of a poor Tartar named Chaja Aiass, who had been admitted into the service of an omrah or prince at the Mogul court. As the maiden had been betrothed by her father to a Turkoman noble named Shere Afkun, Prince Selim applied to his father, the Emperor Akbar, who sternly refused to be a party to an act of injustice, even in the interest of his own son, the heir to the Mogul throne. The prince retired abashed, and Mher-ul-Nissa became the wife of Shere Afkun.

Jehanghire's Base Crime and Remorse.

But when Selim, or Jehanghire, became Emperor by the death of his father Akbar, in 1605, he gave way to the dictates of his passion by causing Shere Afkun, the husband of the beautiful woman whom he coveted, to be murdered. No obstacles then stood in the way of Jehanghire's desires; but the new Emperor was so stricken with remorse at his base crime that he refused even to see the object of it; so that she lived neglected in his harem for four years, where she was so scantily provided for that she was obliged to earn a livelihood by turning her accomplishments to needlework and painting, her productions becoming objects of general desire and admiration.

Mehr-ul Nissa, or Noor Mahl.

Jehanghire's curiosity was finally aroused, and he visited Mher-ul-Nissa, who then assumed the name of Noor Mahl, "Light of the Harem," and thenceforth exercised the most unbounded influence over him. Her father, Chaja Aiass, was promoted to the distinguished position of

Vizier; and his two sons were created omrahs, and proved themselves worthy of their stations. The affairs of the Mogul Empire were never better conducted than under Chaja Aiass, whose administration is still considered one of the few luminous spots in the dark history of internal government in India.

Her Father, Chaja Aiass, as Vizier.

During Jehanghire's reign several European embassies arrived at the Mogul court with commercial objects. These were received with great favor by Jehanghire; but his vacillating disposition, which induced him alternately to grant and withhold their requests, or to alter their conditions, at the wish of his nobles, caused the failure of all these embassies.

European Embassies.

The Vizier Chaja Aiass had held the haughty and imperious disposition of his daughter Noor Mahl under subjection; but after his death she conspired to raise to the Mogul throne Jehanghire's youngest son, who had married her daughter by her first husband, the murdered Shere Afkun. Her brother Asiph Jan was made Vizier, and was endowed with almost the same qualities as his father.

Noor Mahl's Plot.

Noor Mahl's most determined enemy was Jehanghire's third son, Shah Jehan, who eventually became his father's successor on the Mogul throne. Shah Jehan had murdered his brother Chusero, and took up arms against his father to escape his resentment, but failed, chiefly through the abilities of his father's heroic and noble-minded general, Mohâbet. Jehanghire's empress hated the general as a matter of course, and sought to ruin him with her husband, who appears to have appreciated properly his character and services.

Shah Jehan's Revolt and Defeat.

Mohâbet was now summoned to court, through Noor Mahl's influence; but he took the precaution to bring five thousand devoted rajputs as an escort. An audience was ignominiously refused to him until he accounted for certain alleged precautions. His son-in-law was sent to Jehanghire to protest Mohâbet's devotedness to his sovereign and to explain matters, but was sent back stripped and cruelly bastinadoed.

Mohabet and Shah Jehan.

Mohâbet perceived that decisive measures were demanded, and he therefore planned a bold scheme. The imperial army had to cross the Jhylum. When the greater part of the army had reached the opposite side of the stream Mohâbet galloped to the bridge with two thousand cavalry, destroyed the bridge, and left a body of his determined friends to prevent the troops from returning across the river; after which he appeared in Jehanghire's tent with a pale but determined countenance, and made the Emperor his prisoner.

Mohabet's Seizure of Jehanghire.

Every effort which the army under Asiph Jan made to recross the river to the aid of the captive sovereign was resisted with great slaughter by Mohâbet's few but resolute troops. Noor Mahl herself, who had caused all the mischief, had already crossed the river, and was half

Asiph Jan's Failure and Noor Mahl's Desperation.

frenzied at the success of Mohâbet's maneuver. She rushed into the water, discharged three quivers of arrows from the bow in her own hands, and had three successive drivers killed on the back of her elephant; thus inflaming the courage of her soldiers to the highest pitch.

Mohabet's Capture and Liberation of Noor Mahl.

Mohâbet crossed the river and drove all before him. He finally took Noor Mahl prisoner, accused her of high treason and other crimes, and obtained an order for her execution. She begged to see Jehanghire once more, and her request was granted. She was admitted into Jehanghire's presence, and stood before him in silence. Jehanghire burst into tears, and exclaimed: "Will you not spare this woman, Mohâbet? See how she weeps." Mohâbet replied: "It is not for the Emperor of the Moguls to ask in vain." Mohâbet thereupon instantly gave Noor Mahl her liberty.

Jehanghire's Restoration.

The loyal Mohâbet then released Jehanghire, restored to him all authority, and dismissed his guards. But Noor Mahl was sufficiently base to demand the magnanimous general's death, and when Jehanghire refused to grant her request she sought to assassinate Mohâbet. Jehanghire warned his general of her intentions; whereupon Mohâbet fled, was proclaimed a traitor, and a price was set upon his head. His lofty and fearless character now led him to decide on a most extraordinary step. He disguised himself and went into the camp of Asiph Jan, the brother of his deadly enemy, Noor Mahl, and obtained an interview.

Mohabet's Flight and Bold Step.

His Interview with Asiph Jan.

Asiph Jan appreciated Mohâbet's mercy to his sister, as well as his generous confidence on this occasion, and therefore received the general with open arms, taking him to a secret apartment. Said Mohâbet: "Purvez, the elder of the princes, is virtuous and my friend; but we must not exchange one feeble sovereign for another. I have fought Shah Jehan and know his merit. Though his ambition acknowledges no restraint of nature or justice, his vigor will prevent intestine disorder and give power to the laws." Asiph Jan coincided in these views; but their schemes were rendered unnecessary by the deaths of Purvez and Jehanghire, which occurred soon afterward, A. D. 1627.

Shah Jehan, A. D. 1627–1659.

Shah Jehan succeeded his father on the Mogul throne, and secured himself against competitors by the murder of every other male descendant of Baber, except his own four sons—Dara, Sujah, Aurungzebe and Morad. Asiph Jan was created Vizier, and Mohâbet was appointed commander-in-chief. Lodi, a descendant of the Patan, or Afghan sovereigns of India, and who had formerly fought against Shah Jehan, was now his principal enemy, but surrendered himself on condition of receiving a province. He was soon afterward invited to the Mogul court, but was received with such studied insult that he shed tears and fainted away—a strange effect on so brave a man. In another unsuccessful rebellion he perished in despair, after seeking "an honorable

His Murders.

Rebellions and Death of Lodi.

death" by leading thirty followers in an attack on a considerable force of the enemy. Shah Jehan displayed the most indecent joy at Lodi's death—a compliment to the latter's abilities and heroism. Some disturbances in the Deccan were soon quieted.

Shah Jehan's Quiet and Prosperous Reign.

Shah Jehan's millions of subjects enjoyed such tranquillity and happiness during his reign as had seldom prevailed in Hindoostan. His governors were watched closely and brought to a strict account, and his reign is celebrated for the strict execution of the laws. The collection of the revenue was better managed than even during Akbar's reign. India is indebted to Shah Jehan for some of its noblest architectural structures. He founded the city of Jehanpoor, near Delhi, for his own residence, and erected one of the finest palaces in the world. He constructed a mausoleum of white marble, inlaid with precious stones, one hundred and ninety yards square, on an elevated terrace in the midst of a beautiful garden, for his favorite queen, Noor Jehan.

His Great Works.

Shah Jehan's Sons.

Shah Jehan's illness encouraged his sons to aspire to the Mogul crown. The most dangerous of these sons was the crafty, courageous and energetic Aurungzebe, who professed to be intensely religious and desirous of restoring the purity of the Mohammedan worship, which had become wisely tolerant in order to conciliate the Hindoos. Aurungzebe cajoled his brother Morad, thus inducing him to place money and troops at his disposal. He also attached the enormously wealthy emir of the Prince of Golconda to his fortunes.

Aurungzebe's Rebellion, Victory and Usurpation.

Dara, Shah Jehan's eldest son, who was called to administer the government of the Mogul Empire for his father, whose illness incapacitated him for its functions, began his administration by forbidding his brothers to approach the palace on penalty of death. The brothers broke out into open rebellion; and the hostile armies engaged in a desperate conflict, during which one of Dara's captains deserted to Aurungzebe with thirty thousand men, thus giving that prince the victory and making him Emperor, A. D. 1659.

Aurungzebe, A. D. 1659–1707.

The victorious AURUNGZEBE then made his father his prisoner, and detained him in captivity during the remainder of his life. Shah Jehan had previously sought to inveigle Aurungzebe into the harem of the citadel of Agra, where he had stationed some powerful Tartar women, who were ready to fall upon and crush his son. Aurungzebe also reduced his brother Morad to helpless captivity. Sujah, another brother, was driven into exile, and sought refuge with the King of Arakan, by whom he was basely murdered.

Captivity of Shah Jehan and Morad.

Captivity and Murder of Aurungzebe's Brothers.

Aurungzebe's eldest brother Dara endured every hardship, and was at length treacherously betrayed to Aurungzebe, who caused him to be paraded about the streets of Delhi, attired in a dirty cloth, on a miserable, filthy-looking elephant. At this humiliating sight cries of dis-

tress and piercing shrieks were uttered by men, women and children on all sides, as if some great calamity had befallen themselves. This popular commiseration sealed the fate of Dara, and he was murdered by Aurungzebe. Soon afterward Morad met with a similar fate.

Result of Royal Family Murders.

These dissensions in the reigning Mogul family—the result of no fixed rule of succession—were evidence of a decline of the Mogul Empire. Shah Jehan had struck the first blow at the Mogul sovereignty by murdering his relatives. By a similar atrocity Aurungzebe shook that sovereignty to its very center. Thus the principle became established that, on the death of a Mogul Emperor, "there was no place of safety but the throne, the steps to which must be the dead bodies of unsuccessful competitors"; and these victims were usually the nearest relatives of the aspirant to the Mogul throne.

Aurungzebe, Shah Jehan and the Royal Jewels.

Aurungzebe's character appears to have undergone a remarkable change for the better when he had become undisputed master of the Mogul dominions in India. He showed his father all attention and respect consistent with his captivity. Desiring to adorn the throne with some of his father's jewels, Aurungzebe sent to ask for them of the captive Shah Jehan, who told his son that hammers were ready to pound the jewels into dust if there were any more importunity for them. Aurungzebe replied: "Let him keep his jewels; nay, let him command those of Aurungzebe." When this remark of his son was reported to Shah Jehan the captive father sent a number of the gems which he had refused, saying: "Take these, which I am destined to wear no more. Wear them with dignity, and, by your own renown, make some amends to your family for their misfortunes." When this remark of his captive father was reported to Aurungzebe the latter shed tears.

Aurungzebe and His Vast Empire.

Aurungzebe was the most powerful of the Mogul Emperors of India, and one of the most powerful of all Oriental sovereigns. During his reign the Mogul Empire in India attained its highest pinnacle of wealth, power and magnificence. Its dominion extended from Persia on the west to Burmah on the east, and from the Hindoo Koosh and the Himalayas on the north to the river Kistna on the south; thus embracing all of Hindoostan north of that river, and all of Afghanistan and Beloochistan. The population of this vast Empire was about ninety millions.

His Abilities.

Aurungzebe displayed abilities of the highest order. He was familiar with the entire business of internal administration, and devoted his attention thereto with unremitting assiduity. He rose at dawn every morning, and was in his hall of audience at seven o'clock,

His Justice.

where, in accordance with the custom of Oriental monarchs, he listened to the complaints of his subjects, rich and poor, and administered justice with the strictest impartiality. He gave money liberally to the

poor, and commanded that persons learned in the law and the precepts of the Koran should attend in the public courts at his own expense to aid the poor in matters of litigation. **Kindness to the Poor.**

Aurungzebe punished judges who were guilty of corruption or partiality with extreme severity. His activity kept the machinery of government in motion through all the members of the political fabric. His discerning eye followed corruption to its most secret haunts, and his inexorable justice established tranquillity and secured property all over his vast dominions. **Administration of Justice.**

The splendor of Aurungzebe's court was never surpassed in the Oriental world. His trappings of state were of unparalleled expense, and almost beyond credulity. The roof of his hall of audience was of silver, and the screens that separated it from the other apartments were of solid gold. His throne, with the canopy, the trappings, and the harness of the state elephant, were valued at sixty millions. All else pertaining to the royal person and to the royal residence was on a scale of similar splendor. **Splendor of Aurungzebe's Court.**

Most of Aurungzebe's wealth was obtained by plunder and oppression, of which he was guilty, but which he would not tolerate in any of his officials or servants. He increased the expenses of his government to an immense degree, but the legal revenues were not much larger than during the economical reign of Akbar. **Revenues and Expenses.**

Aurungzebe passed much of his time in his camp, because of his apprehensions of the hostile designs of his sons against one another and against himself. This camp was in the nature of a moving city, and usually contained fifty thousand troops, one hundred and fifty thousand horses, mules and elephants, one hundred thousand camels and oxen, and three or four hundred thousand camp followers. All the leading men of Delhi attended the court wherever it went, and the magnificence of this style of living supported the immense number of traders and artisans attached to the camp. **Aurungzebe's Camp.**

In 1665 a remarkable rebellion broke out in the Mogul Empire, which exhibited the great power of superstition over the weak-minded and credulous Hindoos. A class of fanatical devotees in Hindoostan, called *fakirs*, wandered about the country in multitudes nearly naked, pretending to live by begging, but in reality practicing theft, robbery and murder. In the territory of Manwar, or Judpore, a wealthy old woman commenced increasing her liberality toward the fakirs. These sturdy beggars gathered about her by thousands, not satisfied with the alms of the pious patroness, and commenced plundering the neighboring country. The inhabitants rose in arms against these hypocritical robbers, but were several times very signally and disastrously defeated with terrible slaughter. **The Fakirs and the Old Woman of Judpore.** **Rebellion.**

Superstition.

The belief became prevalent that enchantment was at work. The people considered the old woman a sorceress, and believed that she compounded a witch's mess, rendering the fakirs invincible by mortal weapons. Finding the old woman's protection so powerful, the fakirs assembled in vast numbers, and ravaged the country far around. The Rajah of Manwar attacked them, but was defeated. Their unexpected success made them presumptuous, so that they determined to attack the capital of the Mogul Empire itself.

Ravages of the Fakirs.

The "Old Woman's War."

Accordingly an army of twenty thousand fakirs, under the leadership of the old woman, marched against Agra, and defeated an imperial force under the command of the collector of the district when within five days' journey of the capital. The victorious fakirs now considered themselves invincible, and therefore able to seize all the wealth and authority of the Empire; so that they at once proclaimed the old woman Empress of Hindoostan.

Effect of the Popular Superstition.

Aurungzebe had at first despised this insurrection, but he now became convinced of its serious character. The soldiers were affected with the popular superstition; and it was extremely hazardous to permit them to engage with these fanatical banditti, who were believed to be possessed of magic arts by which they could paralyze the bodies of their enemies.

Aurungzebe's Religious Habits.

Aurungzebe's prompt sagacity invented an antidote for the religious contagion. His reputation for sanctity was as great as that of the old woman. In his younger days he had been distinguished for the devotion and austerity of a religious mendicant, leading a life of severe penance, eating only barley bread, herbs and fruits, and drinking nothing but water.

His Ingenious Expedient and its Result.

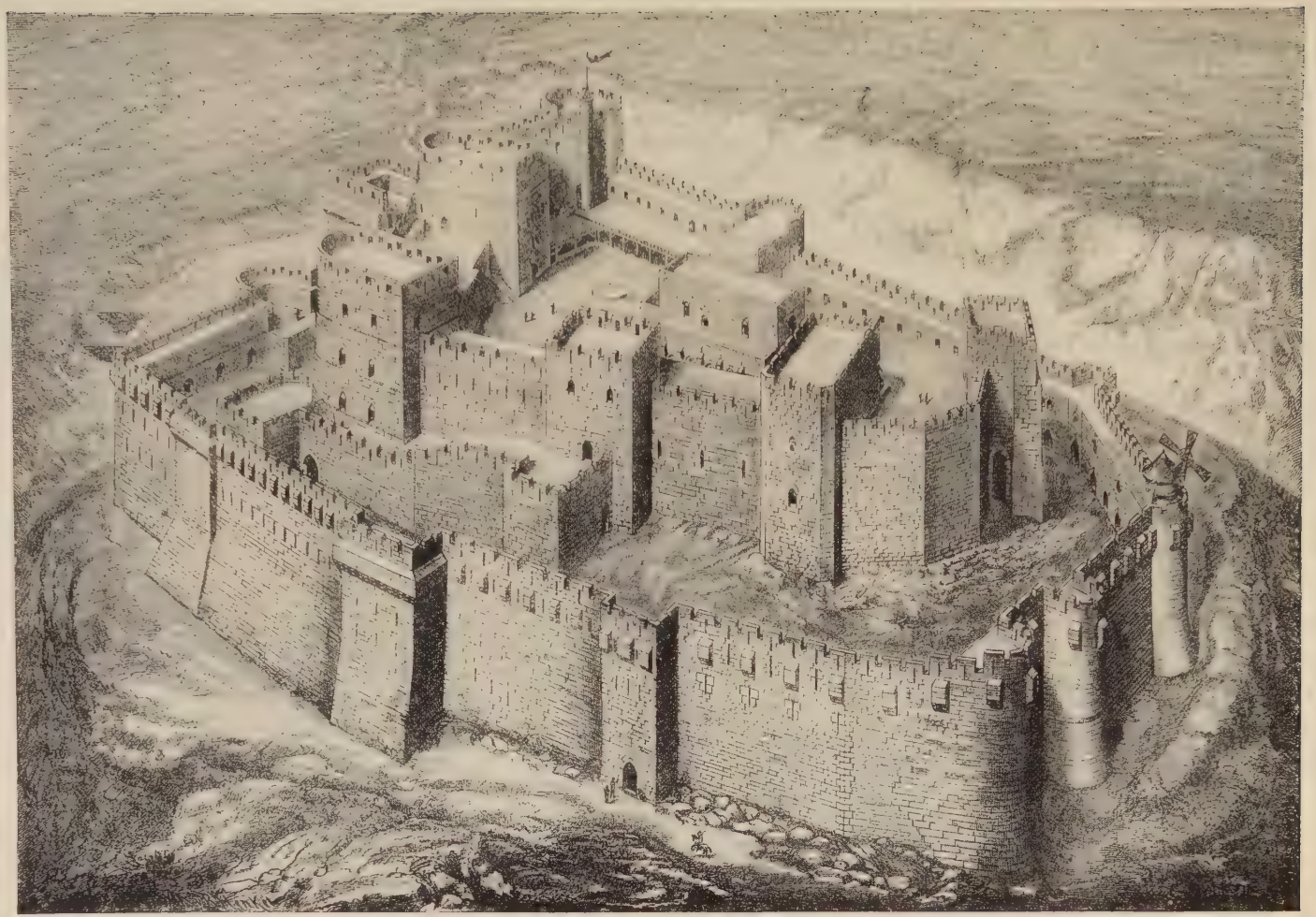
He now turned the reputation which he had thus acquired to good account. He pretended that he had discovered, by means of incantation, a counter-enchantment to the enchantment of the fakirs. He wrote with his own hands certain mysterious words upon slips of paper, and declared that each of these slips of paper carried upon the point of a spear before each of the squadrons of troops would neutralize the spell of the enchantress. He was believed. The counter-enchantments were carried into battle; and the fakirs were cut to pieces, though they fought desperately.

Aurungzebe's Remark.

Such was the result of the *Old Woman's War*, one of the most singular events in all history. When speaking of this affair, Aurungzebe remarked: "I find that too much religion among the vulgar is as dangerous as too little in the monarch."

End of Mogul Glory.

The glory of the Mogul Empire ended with the death of Aurungzebe, in 1707; and civil wars soon led to the dismemberment of that vast dominion, which was gradually split up into fragments.



A MEDIÆVAL CASTLE—THE SO-CALLED KERAK (OR KRAK) DES CHEVALIERS, TRIPOLI, SYRIA
(RECONSTRUCTION AFTER REY)
(This was one of the fortresses of the Knights Hospitallers at the period of the Crusades, and an excellent example of the feudal stronghold)

Rapid Decline of the Empire.

The remaining history of the Great Mogul Empire in India after Aurungzebe's death, in 1707, is but the melancholy record of a series of miserable struggles among Baber's descendants for the imperial sway, while the Empire was constantly becoming less worth the contest. Aurungzebe's death was immediately followed by a bloody civil war among his sons. Battles in which three hundred thousand men were engaged were fought near Agra, the capital of the Empire. Aurungzebe's second son, Mohammed Mauzm, defeated his brothers, who were slain in battle, and ascended the Mogul throne under the names of SHAH ALLUM, the "King of the World," and BAHADUR SHAH, the "Valiant King."

Civil War among Aurungzebe's Sons.

Shah Allum, A. D. 1707–1712.

Shah Allum did not inherit his illustrious father's capacity or his good fortune. Involved in a struggle with the Sikhs of the Punjab, and perplexed by the restless ambition of his four sons, who appeared as competitors for the Mogul crown during his life-time, he died of grief and anxiety in 1712, after a reign of five years, leaving behind him the reputation of an accomplished, liberal and humane monarch.

Civil War among His Sons.

Jehander Shah, A. D. 1712–1713.

After Shah Allum's death the usual civil war arose among his four sons, who, besides appealing to force of arms, resorted to every stratagem that fraud and treachery could suggest to base minds, in order to circumvent each other. Mauz Odin, the eldest of Shah Allum's four sons, by a superior stroke of perfidy, succeeded in overthrowing his three brothers and putting them to death. He thus gained the Mogul throne, and assumed the title of JEHANDER SHAH. His chief adviser was a concubine, one of the impure class of public dancers; and he was frequently seen near Delhi, walking with such abandoned females.

Ferokhsir, A. D. 1713–1718.

His Plot against the Omrahs.

After reigning for a year and a-half in voluptuous indolence, Jehander Shah was dethroned by the disaffected omrahs; whereupon his nephew FEROKHSIR seized the Mogul throne, after defeating and killing his uncle, A. D. 1713. But while Ferokhsir was invested with the external marks of authority, the omrahs, who had raised him to the throne, reserved to themselves all the essential powers of government. Finding himself used as a mere puppet, Ferokhsir projected the overthrow of his masters, and slaughtered without compunction every person in his power from whom he could apprehend any possible danger. According to the genius of Oriental policy, Ferokhsir's plot for the destruction of the omrahs was secret and perfidious; but the omrahs detected the plot, counteracted it by their superior address, and caused Ferokhsir to be strangled after a reign of almost six years, A. D. 1718.

Assassination of Ferokhsir.

Mohammed Shah, A. D. 1720–1747.

After the Mogul Empire had been kept in an unsettled condition for several years by the intrigues of the omrahs, MOHAMMED SHAH was raised to the throne about A. D. 1720. By an expert use of his power, Mohammed Shah effected the destruction of the omrahs who had con-

tributed to his elevation; after which, considering himself perfectly secure from his enemies, he abandoned himself to a career of luxury and debauchery, and utterly neglected public affairs. The most destructive abuses and oppressions prevailed throughout the Mogul Empire.

His Prodigality.

His Disgraceful Peace with the Mahrattas.

Instead of offering a resolute opposition to the Mahrattas, who were then rapidly rising into power in Hindoostan, Mohammed Shah purchased peace of those marauders by paying them as a ransom a fourth part of his resources. With a weakness still more fatal, Mohammed Shah, finding it troublesome to collect this fourth part of his resources, permitted the ruthless Mahrattas to collect it in their own rough way, thus abandoning his subjects to the spoiler.

Nadir Shah's Persian Invasion of the Mogul Empire.

The misgovernment under Mohammed Shah brought the whole Mogul Empire into such a distracted condition that a treacherous omrah who hoped to aggrandize himself by the subjugation of his countrymen instigated Nadir Shah of Persia to invade Hindoostan in 1739. Marching into the country with a powerful army, Nadir Shah gained possession of Delhi through the treachery of Mohammed Shah's officers, who were rewarded by the following speech from Nadir Shah, exhibiting a strange medley of the monarch, the ruffian and the fanatic: "Are not you both most ungrateful villains to your king and country, who, after possessing such wealth and dignities, call me from my own dominion to ruin them and yourselves? But I will scourge you with all my wrath, which is the vengeance of God."

Nadir Shah's Massacre of One Hundred Thousand People at Delhi.

A Persian soldier seized a pigeon-seller's basket, and the pigeon-seller called out that Nadir Shah had ordered a general pillage; whereupon the streets of Delhi were soon filled with an excited populace, who attacked the Persians. A report was circulated that Nadir Shah was dead, and two thousand Persians were slaughtered before night. Nadir Shah himself was shot at. This incident aroused his tiger-like ferocity, and caused him to order a general massacre of the populace of Delhi. Before two o'clock one hundred thousand men, women and children of the great capital of the Mogul Empire in India lay dead in bloody heaps. During this atrocious deed the enraged Shah of Persia sat in the mosque at Delhi. None but his slaves dared approach him, as his countenance was dark and terrible. At length the Mogul Emperor, Mohammed Shah, attended by a number of his chief omrahs, ventured to come near him with downcast eyes. The omrahs who preceded Mohammed Shah bowed down their foreheads to the ground. Nadir Shah inquired sternly what they wanted. They exclaimed unanimously: "Spare the city!" Mohammed Shah did not utter a word, but the tears flowed fast from his eyes. The tyrant Shah of Persia was touched with pity for once; and, sheathing his sword, he said: "For the sake

of the prince Mohammed, I forgive." The effect of his orders for the cessation of the massacre was so instantaneous that everything was calm in the Mogul capital in the course of a few minutes.

Pillage of Three Hundred and Fifty Million Dollars' Worth.

But when the massacre ceased the pillage only commenced, and the amount of the plunder has been estimated at from one hundred and fifty million to three hundred and fifty million dollars in our money. During the sacking of Delhi the gates of the city were closed, and the populace began to suffer the horrors of famine. Tucki, an actor, was playing before Nadir Shah, who was so delighted with the performance that he promised the actor any reward that he should ask. The noble Tucki fell on his knees, and exclaimed: "O King, command the gates to be opened, that the poor may not perish." The Shah of Persia granted the actor's request, and Tucki was rewarded for his benevolence by the blessings of his fellow-creatures.

Nadir Shah's Ritirement.

After extorting from the wretched Hindoos all the money and treasures which they could furnish, Nadir Shah reinstated Mohammed Shah in his authority with pomp and solemnity, but took from him Afghanistan and Beloochistan, and gave him some good advice. The Shah of Persia then retired from Delhi, and returned in triumph to his own kingdom; but he was attacked on his way by the Afghans, who plundered his camp of much of his treasure, among which was the valuable diamond called *Koh-e-noor*, "the Mountain of Light."

Attacked by the Afghans.

Dissolution of the Mogul Empire.

No sooner were the Persian armies withdrawn from India than a general defection of the Hindoo dependents of the Mogul Emperor occurred. None were willing to yield obedience to a sovereign who was no longer able to enforce his authority. All the tribes of enterprising warriors that had sought refuge in the mountains during the period of Mogul splendor now descended into the plains, and seized the finest provinces of the Empire. Even private adventurers assumed the rank of sovereigns.

Afghan Invasion of India.

Nadir Shah of Persia was assassinated by his own officers in 1747, in the midst of the confusion prevailing in India in consequence of the dissolution of the Mogul Empire; and this event occasioned a fresh invasion of India by the Afghan chieftain Achmet Abdallah, who had been enabled to raise an army of fifty thousand men by seizing three hundred camels loaded with treasure. He marched against Delhi, and his destroying hosts ravaged India in the whole course of their advance.

Ahmed Shah, A. D. 1748–1754.

Mohammed Shah died in the midst of this Afghan invasion, A. D. 1748, and was succeeded on the Mogul throne by his eldest son, AHMED SHAH, who was unable to restore the declining fortunes of the Mogul Empire against the attacks of the Mahrattas and the Rohillas, who were troublesome in India itself; while the Afghans had established a powerful monarchy west of the Indus, and wrested the provinces of

Invasions by Mahrattas, Rohillas and Afghans.

Moultan and Lahore, in the North-west of Hindoostan, from the Mogul Emperor. The Mahrattas were a powerful tribe from the Vindhya mountains and the head of the Western Ghauts. They had already overrun the northern portion of the Deccan, and now penetrated into the imperial provinces of Agra and Delhi.

Allumghire, A. D. 1754–1759.

After Ahmed Shah had reigned nearly seven years he was blinded and deposed by Gazi, an omrah of great influence, who enthroned ALLUMGHIRE, a descendant of Aurungzebe, A. D. 1754, and who had been for some time confined as a prisoner of state. The Mogul dominions were now subjected to the ravages of the Afghans, who marched an army to the very gates of Delhi, so that the Mogul capital was again at the mercy of an enemy. The Mogul Emperor had sunk so low that he begged the Afghan chief, Abdallah, not to leave him to the mercy of his own Vizier, the rebel Gazi, who had put out the eyes of Ahmed Shah. The Afghan chief gladly complied with the Mogul Emperor's request; and, after plundering the country of everything of value, he occupied Delhi, leaving Allumghire to regret his folly and to lament over his exhausted treasury. At length Gazi caused Allumghire to be assassinated, A. D. 1759.

Afghan Invasion of India and Occupation and Plunder of Delhi.

Massacre and Burning of Delhi by the Afghans.

The Afghans laid Delhi under such oppressive contributions that the inhabitants took up arms in despair. The Afghan chief was so enraged at this that he ordered a general massacre, which lasted a full week without cessation. At the same time many of the edifices were set on fire and consumed; and thus the great city of Delhi, one of the two capitals of the Mogul Empire—which, in the days of its glory, was said to have been thirty-four miles long, and to have contained two millions of people—was reduced almost to a heap of ruins.

Continued Dissolution of the Mogul Empire.

These repeated ravages of foreign invaders utterly broke the power of the Mogul Emperor. The native Hindoo chiefs usurped the governments of the various provinces of the Empire; and some of the provinces were seized by the English and the French, who now began their struggle with each other for supremacy in India.

The Great Mogul's Empty Title.

But though the Great Mogul became a mere name it was a name that was highly venerated by the great mass of the Hindoos, who felt the advantage of having a sovereign who could protect them from the tyranny of the local governors and give them redress when needed. The Mogul Emperor's dominions gradually melted away until only the city of Delhi and its vicinity remained within the Great Mogul's jurisdiction, but while his title remained there were many popular reasons for respecting it.

His Nominal Sovereignty.

Accordingly grants of land were sanctioned by his name, even in localities where he possessed no administrative authority. The Hindoo nabobs had their *firmans*, or commissions of appointment, under his

nominal sanction, even though they tolerated no interference on his part in their respective governments; and the coin continued to be struck in his name long after he was reduced to the condition of a mere pensioner of the English East India Company.

Mahrattas and Afghans.

The Mahrattas now made an effort to seize the Mogul Empire by one bold stroke; but Abdallah, the Afghan chief, was still in India, and he took the field against the Mahrattas. On January 7, 1761, was fought the great battle of Panniput, near Delhi, in which each army numbered about two hundred thousand men, and in which the Mahratta army was almost totally destroyed by the victorious Afghans, who then returned home.

Battle of Panniput.

Shah Allum II., A. D. 1761–

The power of the Mogul Emperor was now at an end. Abdallah, the Afghan chief, conferred the Mogul sovereignty on SHAH ALLUM II., who was never really master of his own dominions, and who experienced a variety of the most cruel disasters. Finally the Mogul Emperor became involved in a quarrel with the English East India Company, whose troops defeated his army at Buxar in 1764, in consequence of which he fell completely under the influence of that powerful British mercantile corporation, thus putting an end to the influence of his name in Hindoostan, and rendering the English East India Company the predominant power in India. In the next half century India presents a perplexed chronicle of violent revolutions, occasioned by the various Hindoo chiefs who successively rose to more or less power, and their contests with the English East India Company.

His Subjection to the English East India Company.

Shah Allum II. and Gholam Khadur.

The account of the last revolution that occurred in the Mogul dominions previous to the time that the Mogul sovereigns became pensioners of the English East India Company is interesting as a picture of Orientalism, and instructive as an example of the instability of human grandeur and the precarious condition of despotic governments. This revolution was inaugurated by Gholam Khadur, who had been disinherited by his father and driven from his presence for vice and crime. Shah Allum II., the Mogul Emperor, took him under his protection, treated him as his own son, and conferred upon him the second title in the Mogul dominions—the title of *Emir of Emirs*. Being invested with this honor, Gholam Khadur lived with Shah Allum II. at Delhi, and raised a force of about eight thousand troops of his own countrymen, the Moguls, assuming the command of this force himself. Gholam Khadur was of a passionate temper, haughty, cruel, ungrateful and debauched.

Late in 1788 Shah Allum II. had become suspicious that some of the neighboring rajahs would make efforts to conquer what remained of his dominions—a suspicion which was confirmed by the approach of a large army toward his capital commanded by a chief named Ismail, and aided

Scindia's Mahratta Invasion and Gholam Khadur's Advice to Shah Allum II.

by Scindia, the warlike Mahratta sovereign. Gholam Khadur reassured Shah Allum II., who was discouraged at the array of his formidable foes. Gholam urged the Mogul Emperor to march out, give his troops a supply of money, and he would lay his head on the enemy's being repulsed. When the Emperor replied that he had no money Gholam offered to advance an adequate sum himself, saying: "Only head the army. The presence of the monarch is half the battle." Shah Allum II. appeared to consent to do so, and requested Gholam to assemble the army, to pay the arrears of the troops and to inform them of the Emperor's purpose to lead them in person.

Treachery of Shah Allum II. to Gholam Khadur.

Gholam Kadur was therefore greatly astonished when on the following day he intercepted a letter from Shah Allum II. to Scindia, the hostile Mahratta chief, desiring him to make all possible haste and destroy Gholam, saying in the letter: "For he urges me to act against my wishes and oppose you." When Gholam thus discovered his sovereign's treachery he marched out with his troops, crossed the Jumna, and encamped on the other side of the river, opposite the fort of Delhi, the Emperor's residence. He then returned to the Emperor his intercepted letter, asking him if such conduct did not merit the loss of his throne.

Gholams Khadur's Revolt and Blinding of Shah, Allum II.

After a siege of several days, Gholam took the fort by storm, entered the palace in arms, appeared in the Emperor's chamber, insulted the old monarch in the most barbarous manner, knocked him down, knelt on his breast, dug out one of his eyes with his knife, and ordered one of the Emperor's servants to thrust out his master's other eye.

Gholam Khadur's Pillage of the Palace at Delhi.

Gholam Khadur then pillaged the palace, proceeded to the Zezana, the residence of the Emperor's women, insulted the ladies, and tore the jewels from their noses, ears and limbs. Having lived with the Emperor, he was well acquainted with the different places where his treasures were concealed. He dug up the floor of the Emperor's own bedroom, where he discovered two chests containing one hundred and twenty thousand gold mohurs in specie—a sum equal to almost a million dollars in our money—which he took with vast sums besides.

His Treacherous Seizure of the Royal Women's Dresses and Jewels.

Gholam Khadur perpetrated a nefarious trick of the meanest kind to get at the concealed jewels of the Emperor's women. He invited the Emperor's ladies and daughters to come and pay their respects to him, promising to free such as could best please him by their dress and appearance. The innocent, unthinking women brought out their jewels and adorned themselves in their most elegant attire to please Gholam. He ordered them to be conveyed into a hall, where he had prepared ordinary dresses for them. He compelled them to put on these dresses, by the aid of eunuchs; after which he took possession of their elegant dresses and jewels, and sent the women home to lament their own credulous vanity and to curse his treachery. Gholam insulted the Emperor's

daughters by making them dance and sing, and brought the most beautiful of these princesses, Mobaruck ul Mulk, into his presence; but she stabbed herself rather than submit her person to him.

Scindia's Aid to Shah Allum II.

Soon afterward Scindia, the Mahratta chief, came to the aid of Shah Allum II., ostensibly; but his real design was to make himself master of the remnant of the once-mighty Mogul dominion. Gholam Khadur fled, and took refuge in the fort of Agra, the other Mogul capital, a distance of one hundred and fifty miles south from Delhi. He was besieged there by Scindia's troops. Conscious that he would be taken prisoner if he remained there, he took advantage of a dark night by stuffing his saddle with a large stock of precious stones and fleeing with a few followers toward Persia. Unfortunately for him he fell from his horse the second night of his flight, and was taken prisoner by a party of cavalry which had been sent in pursuit of him. He was brought into the presence of Scindia, who exposed him for some time in irons and then in a cage, after which he ordered his captive's ears, nose, hands and feet to be cut off, and his eyes to be taken out, allowing him to die in that condition.

Gholam Khadur's Flight and His Torturous Murder by Scindia.

Partition of the Mogul Dominions.

The victorious Scindia seized on the remnant of the Mogul Empire which he had professedly come to protect, and left to Shah Allum II., the nominal Mogul Emperor, only the city of Delhi and its immediate vicinity, where, in his blindness, he remained an empty shadow of royalty.

End of the Mogul Empire by British Conquest.

In 1803 the English under Sir Arthur Wellesley, afterward Duke of Wellington, after defeating the Mahrattas in the battle of Assayé, placed the immediate sovereignty of Delhi and Agra under the English East India Company, which pensioned off the last descendant of the mighty royal race of Baber. Thus ended the Great Mogul Empire in India; though the title of *King of Delhi* continued for about half a century to be given to the lineal descendant of the Grand Mogul dynasty, who still resided at Delhi as a pensioner of the English East India Company.

MOGUL EMPERORS OF INDIA.

A. D. 1525	Baber.	A. D. 1712	Jehander Shah.
1530	Humayan.	1713	Farokhsir.
1556	Akbar.	1720	Mohammed Shah.
1605	Jehanghire.	1748	Ahmed Shah.
1627	Shah Jehan I.	1754	Allumghire.
1659	Aurungzebe.	1759	Shah Allum II.
1707	Bahadur Shah, or Shah Allum I.	1803	Empire ended by British conquest.